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ABSTRACT

The 13 papers contained in this document represent a selection of presentations from a national forum on teacher education which addressed empowerment and professionalization of teachers. The papers are: (1) "Imagining Preservice Teachers" (Alison Brennan, M. Serra Goethals, Rose Howard); (2) "Corsini 4R Schools Empower Teachers" (Paul Clark); (3) "Teacher Empowerment: An Unanticipated Benefit from a Clinical Schools Approach to Teacher Education" (Edgar Epperly, Nicholas Preus); (4) "Captive Leaders: Problems of Classroom Authority and Institutional Power in Teaching" (Susan Florio-Ruane); (5) "Educational Philosophy and Teacher Empowerment" (Maxine Greene); (6) "Teacher Empowerment Begins with the College of Education" (Patti Horn) (7) "Empowering Teachers: How the Teacher Education Programs Contribute to Professional Status, Knowledge, and Decision Making" (Donnie Lawrence); (8) "Throwing a Little Acid on the Teaching Profession" (Joseph McDonald); (9) "Empowerment for Teachers in Multicultural Schools: Inviting the Teaching-Learning Exchange" (Charlotte Reed, Mary Diez); (10) "Parodox and Paradigm: University Leadership and Teacher Empowerment" (Kenneth Schuler); (11) "Teacher Empowerment and Administrator Training: Adversarial or Collegial Notions" (James Smith); (12) "The Foxfire Approach and Teacher Empowerment: Partnerships with Small Colleges" (Sharon Teets); and (13) "Alienation as the Conceptual Foundation for Incorporating Teacher Empowerment into the Teacher Education Knowledge Base" (Michael Vavrus). (SM)

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Proceedings

of the

Third National Forum

Association of Independent Liberal Arts Colleges for Teacher Education

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1989

Edited by Michael Carbone
Muhlenberg College

Table of Contents

Alison Brennan, M. Serra Goethals, & Rose Howard (Bellarmine College)
Imagining Preservice Teachers.....1

Paul Clark (Milligan College)
Corsini 4R Schools Empower Teachers..... 7

Edgar Epperly (Decorah College) & **Nicholas Preus** (Decorah, Iowa Community High School)
Teacher Empowerment: An Unanticipated Benefit from a Clinical Schools Approach too Teacher Education.....14

Susan Florio-Ruane (Michigan State University)
Captive Leaders: Problems of Classroom Authority and Institutional Power in Teaching.....25

Maxine Greene (Columbia University)
Educational Philosophy and Teacher Empowerment.....32

Patti Horn (Grand Canyon College of Education)
Teacher Empowerment Begins with the College of Education.....101

Donnie Lawrence (Adrian College)
Empowering Teachers: How the Teacher Education Programs Contribute to Professional Status, Knowledge, and Decision Making.....44

Joseph McDonald (Brown University)
Throwing a Little Acid on the Teaching Profession.....52

Charlotte Reed & Mary Diez (Alverno College)
Empowerment for Teachers in Multicultural Schools: Inviting the Teaching-Learning Exchange.....57

Kenneth Schuler (Widener University)
Paradox and Paradigm: University Leadership and Teacher Empowerment..... 64

James Smith (Butler University)
Teacher Empowerment and Administrator Training: Adversarial or Collegial Notions.....72

Sharon Teets (Carson-Newman College)
The Foxfire Approach and Teacher Empowerment: Partnerships with Small Colleges.....82

Michael Vavrus (University of Dubuque)
Alienation as the Conceptual Foundation for Incorporating Teacher Empowerment into the Teacher Education Knowledge Base.....88

Introduction

Editor's note: The articles that make up this volume represent a selection of presentations from the Third National Forum of the Association of Independent Liberal Arts Colleges for Teacher Education (AILACTE) where the unifying theme addressed empowerment and professionalization of teachers. Some oral contributions mentioned below contributed to the gathering but are not available in written form.

The process of becoming a profession is often long and complicated. In the case of teaching, two recent ideas have strengthened the movement while making the job of teaching a more demanding and more rewarding one.

The idea of teacher empowerment has attracted much attention. The definition of the word "empowerment" has not been as clear and precise as some would like, but the importance of the efforts made in that name are vital. A second movement that has had similar impact involves professionalization.

The intent of the forum was to explore both concepts from definition to policy to implementation. Key speakers were selected to highlight the issue. Arthur Wise of the Rand Corporation (now at NCATE) focused on the national policy viewpoint. David Imig of AACTE, Richard Kunkel of NCATE (Now at Auburn University) and Damon Moore of the indiana Education Association examined their associations' views of both issues. Maxine Green explored the liberal arts view from a philosopher's vantage point. A variety of "our own" spoke to major aspects of both professionalism and empowerment and the implications of these ideas for teacher education in liberal arts settings.

The practitioner's view was represented by Elliot Wigginton (Foxfire School) and by AILACTE institutions whose programs prepared teachers for a world in which empowerment and professionalization will become a reality.

It is our hope that the discussion begun at the National Forum will continue, assisted by the *Proceedings*. The vitality of the concepts of empowerment and professionalization is a key to the debate that will continue for the next decade.

Ann Shelly
AILACTE President, 1989-90

TITLE: IMAGING PRESERVICE TEACHERS

AUTHORS: DR. ALISON D. H. BRENNAN
DR. M. SERRA GOETHALS
DR. ROSE A.HOWARD

INSTITUTION: BELLARMINE COLLEGE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
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One of the major problems facing the educational system of the 1980's is the devaluation of the professionals involved in classroom teaching (Boyer 1988). The erosion of the self-image of any professional is a serious problem as it decreases the effectiveness and therein the productivity of the professional. The effect is intensified when the professionals lack group cohesiveness and identity to take an active stance against such negativism (Haberman and Collins 1988).

Repeatedly, research indicates that the teacher is the strongest determiner of student success in the classroom (Dusek and Joseph 1985, Good and Brophy 1987). Aside from the parent, research indicates that the teacher is the most effective advocate for the student. It is the teacher who is best able to develop an appropriately strong academic program for the student (Howey, Mertens and Yarger 1988). Even though these statements would rarely be contested by any school administrator or by the public, teachers no longer hold the honored position that they once did in our society. As was quoted from an interview with Linda Darling-Hammond (Meek 1988):

> There is a dialogue about improving teachers' status, responsibility, and autonomy. But, at the same time, teachers continue to be treated as second-class citizens - in education the greatest status accrues to those who work least closely with children (p. 12).

Rather then contest the accusations of teacher responsibility for the failure of society to effectively educate youth, teachers have allowed such statements to stand. Teachers have barricaded themselves in their classrooms and turned a deaf ear to the accusations of society. They have elected to continue to teach and not defend themselves against unjust accusations. The question of "why" such avoidance behaviors have developed must be addressed before effective solutions might be found.

The issue is complex and certainly not an easy one to combat since all of the variables have yet to be identified; however, one of the major contributors of the passivity of teachers lies in poor self-image. From early on in one's life, one remembers the statements that "anyone can teach," "If you can't do anything else, teach," "who would ever do that kind of job if they could do something else that pays more?" and the list continues (Hawley 1986). One of the reasons that the educational system has not effectively used the rich and varied talents of educators is due to a lack of image building. The corporate world has long realized the importance of "image building." Entire businesses devote themselves to teaching young executives how to build a positive self-image. How does society "image" the teacher? All too frequently, the response is negative as demonstrated by the research of Hanes and Hanes (1988).

The education department of Bellarmine College, a small independent, liberal arts college in Louisville, Kentucky, has taken an active stance on the "imaging" of teachers in training. The motto "Teachers can and do make a difference" is reinforced in every aspect of the program. The phrase that "teaching is an awesome and noble profession," is repeated and demonstrated in a variety of activities beginning in the pre-service teacher's freshman year and continuing until graduation. The overriding theme is that the field of education needs individuals committed to creativity and innovation in education (Haberman and Collins 1988). This theme permeates the overall curriculum design and stimulates all aspects of the students' educational program.

Three major areas in the program promote "positive image building" in the field of teacher education.

The first area, the promotion of teacher education across the college campus involves both faculty and students in the process. The second area addresses facets of the teacher education program that contribute to the pre-service teacher's formation of a positive self-image and a positive group identity within the field of education. The third area delineates specific classroom activities and procedures that contribute to teacher empowerment.

The faculty and the students in the department of education take an active role in the promotion of teacher education across the college campus and beyond. By example, teacher education students are encouraged to participate in a variety of college and community activities so that they formulate a realistic view of the world and develop valuable relationships and networking skills beyond the field of education. The students sponsor various campus-wide activities such as the display of classroom materials they have developed. During such exhibits, the students act as hosts and hostesses to the many visitors who preview the new and innovative projects. The faculty and students schedule a Teacher Forum each year to present timely information as requested by the students. Membership in preprofessional organizations on campus is stressed and the students regularly attend the state counterparts of such organizations. The students often hold leadership positions within those state organizations. Groups of students attend the state and national professional meeting with members of the college faculty. This type of active involvement of students and teachers helps to model "professional behaviors" which has been repeatedly shown to be one of the most effective teaching tools (Janzten 1981). The faculty of the department hold leadership positions within the legislative and professional organizations which help the students to gain experience in the decision making process. One aspect of the college's heritage involves community service. Both students and faculty work side by side to offer workshops to the school districts and to provide tutoring in various programs within the community. The students are mentored in their writing skills and encouraged to publish their ideas either in journal format or in presentation at conferences. Notices of all meetings and accomplishments of the department are published in a variety of media distributed across the campus and within the community. The students are taught to value the strengths within themselves and others and to use those strengths in a positive, productive manner. In all areas, a proactive stance is assumed by the faculty and modeled for the students, so that, passivity is not considered a desirable plan of action.

Many facets of the teacher education program contribute to the pre-service teacher's formation of a positive self-image and positive group identity. The classes within the department are kept at a manageable size of twenty to thirty-five to assure each student individual attention and to provide a forum for the sharing of each student's ideas. Even after completing one to two years of college, students are not admitted into teacher education until they satisfy rigorous requirements. In addition to the more traditional

requirements, the students must have a grade point average higher than that mandated by the state, they must have successfully proved themselves in a variety of carefully selected field experiences, they must have positive recommendations from professionals both within and outside of the department and they must successfully complete a personal interview with a group of professionals representative of the Teacher Education Committee. Once all of the information is gathered, the Teacher Education Committee and the faculty within the Department vote whether to admit the students. If students are admitted into teacher education they participate in a formal ceremony signifying their admittance and applauding their choice. The Teacher Admission Program is attended by administrators and faculty of the college, key persons within the community, family and other students.

Collaboration is a key element within the program. The students collaborate with each other in class to complete activities and participate in a variety of field experiences. Elementary, middle, secondary and special education majors are homogeneously grouped in several specifically required classes such as behavior management and a special education class stressing mainstreaming to learn the necessity of depending upon each other, the value of sharing resources and the continued emphasis that "strong" teaching is hard work no matter what area is involved. As Linda Darling-Hammond (Meeks 1988) so stated,

> We have a closed-door ethic in schools. The notion of collegial consultation and decision making is alien in most schools and will be resisted by some teachers. Of course, other teachers are embracing these ideas and working very hard to find ways to make practices like peer review and collaborative decision making real in schools. And these activities are central to professions because they ensure that there is, not an idiosyncratic piece of knowledge in each practitioner, but a shared body of knowledge (p.15).

Team work between faculty, student, and classroom teacher is repeatedly stressed, as most education classes require a field based experience. Carefully planned and integrated on-site training and support is a major step in insuring that the knowledge and skills provided in the college classroom are incorporated by the pre-service teacher (Fuller and Brown 1975, Joyce and Showers 1982). Each student is placed with a recognized teacher in the public, parochial, or private school systems and is expected to complete various assignments involving observation, one-to-one instruction, small group instruction and whole class instruction. In an attempt to integrate theory and practice, the student is required to maintain a reflective journal. The journal provides a vehicle for the students to share with the professor their most personal insights into the classroom experience and effectively confront their values and beliefs about teaching (Roth 1989). College educators have a terminal degree in their fields and maintain close and continual communication with the classroom teachers. High expectations are the norm in all aspects of a student's work both in college based classes and in field experiences (Beyer 1984, Good and Brophy 1986).

The third major area in which a concentrated effort is made to build the individual's self-confidence occurs in the college classroom. As has already been mentioned, each student is exposed to a variety of school placements. The department of education carefully plans each student's college placements to assure such exposure. Within each setting students are expected to participate in a variety of activities designed to build their self-confidence beginning with teacher observation in all areas and gradually building to the teaching of an entire class. Within the college methods classes the students are required to give planned oral presentations to the college class and to actively assume an impromptu role of assistant teacher to the professor. Throughout the student's college career the student's

teaching is videotaped in a variety of settings. Students are expected to review the video and critique themselves. All students meet individually with the professor and discuss the strengths and areas upon which they would like to improve.

If teachers are to assume active roles in decision making, then critical thinking skills must be nurtured. Each professor is cognizant of the various questioning techniques and how they might be used most effectively. The research of Gall (1984) and Wilen and Clegg (1986) indicates that open-ended questioning styles are most effective in encouraging critical thinking skills. "Think Time" (Schon 1987, Posner 1985, Zeichner and Liston 1987, Bolin 1988) is carefully planned into the daily class schedule. As John Smyth (1989) demonstrated in his recent article, if teacher empowerment is the goal then teacher educators must teach the pre-service teachers to effectively think. Smyth concluded that in order to free the teachers to become less inhibited, they must engage in four sequential stages which are in turn linked to four questions. Without the teaching of thinking skills to the pre-service teachers, the art of questioning the 'status quo' simply will not occur.

Although each of the specific classroom teaching activities and techniques are valuable and add to Bellarmine's strong educational program, it is the underlying humanistic philosophy that might best characterize the faculty-student communication. Although the expectations are high and each student is expected to actively search for growth opportunities, each student is treated as an individual entering one of the most influential professions. Close attention to the affective domain is stressed by the faculty to assure that those individuals entering the profession develop healthy attitudes about themselves and those around them. It is only by modeling this behavior that the prospective teachers will stop closing their classroom doors to the reality of the world and instead take on the challenge and fight for the value of human potential and the dignity of education. If teachers do not address themselves as professionals who deserve to be heard, then why should society treat them as valued members who must be consulted? The question is, has society refused to give teachers the empowerment they so richly deserve or have teachers refused to assume their responsibility?

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CORSINI 4R SCHOOLS EMPOWER TEACHERS

Paul Clark
Milligan College

Raymond Corsini, an Adlerian psychologist, has developed a theoretical school which promises a refreshing surge of power for the teacher. The Corsini 4R School has now had several years of piloting in the United States and several foreign countries. As the name of the school suggests, the four "R's," which are Responsibility, Respect, Resourcefulness and Responsiveness, are especially prominent in the school's belief system and practice.

Impressed by a chance meeting with a former student, Sister Joan Madden, who was a principal of a nearby school, Corsini (1977, 1979) focused his creative attention, developed through years of experience and dialog in Adlerian thought, toward a school where both teachers and students would be empowered to be their authentic selves. Sister Joan had described unhappy, discouraged teachers and apathetic, disinterested students.

Corsini (1987) remembered unhappiness and senseless treatment in his own school experience - such impositions on students as prison-like control over classroom activities, minds, and movement, requirement to study material they already knew, and no choice in academic study and experiences they were regimented through. Teachers required to enforce this unpleasant series of activities which dominate the child's formative years find themselves changing their personalities to force unnatural and useless conforming upon students who could be cooperative and resourceful in the management of more stimulating and interesting learning.

Current Thought on Teacher Empowerment

Various writers have examined the problem of teachers feeling powerless. Some are concerned that persons at the top of the bureaucracy do not share power with teachers. Others are concerned that teachers change themselves by generating knowledge themselves, by being more human, by using power from within, and by having a climate of cooperation. This brief review of the teacher empowerment literature seems to support the need for a C4R system.

Dewey (1916) visualized both teachers and students open to problem-solving in the school setting. Teachers were to be empowered by having "experience," which was Dewey's magic word for the result of thoughtful problem-solving. He encouraged groups of individuals in the schools to problem-solve together. The curriculum was not to be a preconceived body of knowledge to be imposed on persons in the school but all involved were to experience and to grow in the dynamic climate of problem-solving.

Knight (1980) described the spiritual empowerment of teachers by insisting that man, who has free will, reach beyond himself to love others. God's power and life should infuse the teacher toward an empowerment in which she strives for full personal involvement in the teaching activity (knowledge of subject, following of personal interests, development of skills in presentation) and a selfless love for students. This spiritual empowerment might include a moral dimension of teaching (Tom, 1984), causing teachers not to exploit their status position with students and to select well the teaching content.

Maeroff (1988) found some schools where teachers had absolute and final authority in running the school. On the other hand, he found many teachers who said they did not want responsibility for the decisions in the school. They actually would be satisfied if their

voices were heard and respected. Their needs and opinions should be reflected in the policies of the school. Maeroff said, "Empowerment of teachers need not mean that principals cease being in charge, but it should mean much more consultation and collaborative deliberation."

Yonemura (1986) argued that schools should have a psychological climate where both teachers and students can feel a sense of their own power as generators of knowledge. She encouraged teachers to use their own voice instead of "teacher voices" as they invent curricula which will allow them to share their own experiences and personal meanings. Students active, knowledgeable, and fully human work in pairs to generate knowledge.

Garrison (1989) stated that the usual pedagogical research developed scientifically and consumed by administrators may be ignoring practical knowledge developed by the teachers. Scientific knowledge forced on teachers from above by administrators should at least recognize this practical knowledge. This dual body of knowledge confuses teachers and makes them feel powerless because their input is ignored. Garrison (1989) suggested a greater emphasis on personal development and inquiry in teacher education both at the preservice and in-service levels to take advantage of both scientific and practical knowledge and to empower teachers for confident performance.

Ashcroft (1987) noticed that power talk is conspicuously absent from educational literature. An empowered person believes that he has the ability/capability to act and this belief should be accompanied by capable action. Power should not be over someone but with someone. Ashcroft (1987) also generalizes that the fundamental teacher power is personal power which will operate both inner personally and inter personally (socially).

Empowered teachers must have an attitude or a disposition for problem-solving according to Diez (1989). Reflection and dialog on what they did should be a lifelong practice of teachers along with problem-solving. Diez (1989) also observed that capable teachers had inadequate skills in sharing their ideas with other teachers. Teachers must learn to frame their ideas clearly and to synthesize their own ideas with those of other teachers. Diez's emphasis on social problem-solving is similar to Dewey's emphasis.

C4R Schools and Teacher Empowerment

The Corsini 4R schools were designed to humanize the schools for both the teachers and the students. The curriculum for teachers in the C4R schools which I visited was supported by at least a weekly meeting of teachers. Teachers felt equality with administrators on the one hand and students on the other. However, they felt committed and responsible for the implementation of the Corsini ideas.

The three parts of the 4R curriculum - academic, creative, and social - demand three different kinds of roles for the C4R teacher (Corsini, 1989). The school day is divided so that the day usually begins with the homeroom. The second part of the day, lasting for two to three hours, includes the academic classes. The afternoon is usually taken up with the creative curriculum which might include two distinct classes.

Social Curriculum. The teacher-advisor role, which is associated with the social component, is quite complex. It begins with the teacher counseling with the student about class placement on the basis of the standardized test the student takes upon entrance into the school. The student's interests, his friends, or his own assessment of his knowledge of the subject matter may be involved in his choice to study mathematics at the fourth or the fifth grade level.

The student chooses the teacher-advisor with whom he would like to work. In this component of the curriculum, the teacheradvisor is very careful to be a friend, a counselor, and an equal with the student. The teacher-advisor is warm and gentle but always respectful of the student in this relationship. The teacher presides over a daily homeroom, a small group meeting one period per week, and an individual session with each advisee at least once per month.

In the homeroom the teacher-advisor appoints a class council to operate the homeroom in a democratic fashion. This period is designed to be a relaxed period to include fun, games, and socialization activities. The teacher-advisor is careful to operate as an equal except in emergencies or official situations. The teacher in this teacher-advisor role meets with small groups in nondirective fashion. The individual meeting once a month is to review the child's academic progress and deal with any problems which the student is having.

The teacher-advisor is also a liaison with the parents. The teacher meets with parents at least once annually but this meeting must always include the child. The teacher, the parent, or the child can suggest but all must agree to have the meeting. Communication with the home is controlled by the student. Grades or messages are not sent home except at the request of the student. The teacher contracts, negotiates and counsels the child, not the parents. The teacher also is an advocate for the child to represent him or her in the event of any disciplinary problem.

The teacher has a close relationship with the principal for the social component. The leadership of the principal during weekly meetings of the faculty helps teachers understand Adlerian principles. The principal presides over the disciplinary system of the school. The principal's modeling of good social interest is of tremendous importance to the teacher both personally and in the role as leader of children.

Academic Curriculum. The teacher's role in the academic component of the curriculum is different from this role in the traditional school. In C4R the student is responsible for his/her own learning. The subject matter is laid out in printed units which are located in the classroom or in the library. The student is responsible to learn the series of units in each subject matter field. At the end of each unit the student takes a test over the unit and his successful completion of the test is recorded on the progress chart.

Since the student can choose which class he/she will be a part of at any given time, the teacher may feel free to answer a student's question by saying, "The subject matter you are requesting is discussed in Unit 115." The student becomes responsible to find this material or to go hear the teacher who is discussing Unit 115.

The teacher is to explain the subject matter of the unit in a clear, thorough and attractive manner. The students who have chosen to listen to this teacher are usually homogeneous so that she can discuss the topic of the day and have full communication with students. Since attendance in the class is voluntary, the teacher has less of a burden to entertain her class. On the other hand, if she does not communicate well, students may not choose to listen to her; so the presentation is usually one of high quality.

Although the subject matter is planned in the unit, teachers in the C4R method may use many different teaching styles. Teachers may lecture, include considerable class interaction, use small group instruction, or stimulate discovery learning. Not only do

teachers use creativity in selecting their teaching styles but they are responsible for the development of the units. The units can and should be revised from time to time.

An unusual invention of the C4R school is the "GO" signal. If a child is misbehaving, the teacher can nonverbally point to the student and to the door so that the student leaves the classroom. The teacher can do this without breaking the rhythm of the classroom activities and with a minimum of embarrassment to the child. The "GO" signal helps the child notice his distracting activity. Usually, the child returns immediately to the classroom to participate in activities. However, the child can go to another place under the supervision of the school. If the child has disrupted several times, the teacher has the right to refuse admittance with a "STOP" signal to the student.

Homework is not required of students. Students must learn the unit and they will decide when and where they will work on the activities necessary to learn the material. For this reason, classes need to be largely self-contained to include reading and supervised practice. However, the student is responsible for learning the unit so that such activities can be the responsibility of the student outside of the class period also. The students may move to activity centers in the classroom or individuals may decide to leave in the middle of the classroom activity without offense to the teacher.

Creative Curriculum. Another feature of the C4R school is the creative component. In the creative component teachers and students can choose their own topic of study. Teachers, community persons, or students can be involved in the teaching. The principal must approve the topic and control the schedule but usually a great variety of subjects can be selected. There must be someone to teach and some interest on the part of students for the creative subject topic. The creative class can vary in length from a day to a yearlong unit of study.

The creative courses are usually quite activity oriented in the schools which I have visited. In the Hufford School in Joliet, Illinois, a junior high school within a larger traditional junior high school, traditional teachers teach creative classes. This is most useful because it taps a larger pool of expertise, allows traditional teachers to become acquainted with C4R students and gives C4R teachers time for individual teaching or teacher-advisor type activities with individual students. One teacher at the Forest Park Elementary School said that she enjoyed the creative classes because she was usually a primary teacher and the creative classes allowed her to teach part of the time at the intermediate level. This variation in her contact with different age students allowed a challenge and variety in her teaching life.

Conclusion

To describe C4R schools is to point out several ways that these schools differ from schools where teachers feel no power. I talked with teachers in several of these schools - to veterans of the program and to teachers who had not been there so long. All of these teachers felt involved in the school. They thought that they were able to do teaching that was especially interesting to them and that teaching in these schools was less stressful than their experiences in traditional schools.

There are two essential reasons why the C4R system empowers teachers. The first is that the system encourages everyone involved to bear the responsibility for learning. The doctrine of accountability in American schools may have been overdone because it advocates the teacher's taking too much responsibility for student learning. If students can be expected to take up this responsibility they may enjoy learning and make learning more

personal for themselves. The second reason that C4R empowers teachers is the climate of respect. Administrators are encouraged to value teachers. Teachers in turn value their students. Gone is that compulsive feeling of teachers that "I am not doing enough and therefore I am not of value as a person." The C4R climate encourages a responsiveness and a respect which somehow motivates everyone to have greater mental health and greater productiveness.

Equality and Personal Relationships. C4R makes quite a point of making administrators, faculty members and students feel equality. Corsini (1987) said in correspondence "from equality everything flows." Faculty members are to experience a friendship type relationship with their students. The hierarchical power from above is not a part of the C4R school. There is a spirit of cooperation instead of an atmosphere of competition.

Spiritual Empowerment in C4R. C4R teachers are striving for the very highest of goals for themselves. Their desire for excellence includes all of the roles which are a part of the C4R system - teacher-advisor, academic teacher, and creative teacher. The weekly faculty meetings, in which strategies for applying the four R's are discussed, are most important in the dialog of the C4R schools. The spiritual influence of the four R's - Responsibility, Respect, Resourcefulness, and Responsiveness - emanate from the writings of Adler (1930/1970) who emphasized social interest (gemeinschaftsgefuhl). He believed that children should learn social interest so that it would be basic to their mental health for the rest of their lives.

Social Problem-solving. Although C4R is related to Adler's Individual Psychology, the social problem-solving which makes teachers feel greater empowerment is a part of the C4R experience. Both teachers and students feel a responsibility for making choices. In a place where students can choose the mode of learning and even control their own curriculum ("I will emphasize history" or "I will get a class taught in my interest area"), teachers find new ways to develop their own personal learning. The planning and the dialog during faculty meetings are most important as teachers discuss strategies and curricular insights. Friendships between faculty and students make the school a place for social problem-solving. Teachers contract and negotiate with students as they share their curiosity and interest in learning.

Scientific Knowledge and Practical Knowledge. There is room in Corsini 4R for scientific knowledge (the current pedagogical knowledge base) because the C4R system has no mandated instructional methodology. The teacher can use various styles in presenting material. The teacher in the C4R school can learn from the methodology of the current research in education or use the knowledge evolving from practical experience. The fact that C4R schools involve a different approach to education creates an openness to experimentation and to new traditions which can become a part of the knowledge base of schooling. This participation in a program on the cutting edge of the knowledge base can make teachers feel empowered.

Generators of Knowledge. In the creative and in all of the C4R curriculum, teachers are encouraged to be themselves and not use teachers' voices. They are encouraged not to think of controlling their students but rather sharing knowledge with them. The teachers' own personal points of view and meanings are important in their class presentations. The ability to follow an interest in the creative classes is most helpful in this area of generation of knowledge because teachers can go beyond the predigested curriculum to discuss new interest and current problems. A feeling of empowerment

related to generation of knowledge is certainly an experience which persons have in C4R schools.

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Teacher Empowerment: An Unanticipated Benefit from a Clinical Schools Approach to Teacher Education

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Teacher Empowerment: An Unanticipated Benefit
from a Clinical Schools Approach to Teacher Education

Introduction:

When considering how teacher education might serve to empower teachers first thoughts turn toward curriculum content. Perhaps we in teacher education need to change what young teachers are taught during their undergraduate days. Everything from professional organizations, teacher and administrator roles, to the school as a social institution might be fair game for expansion in such a teacher empowerment curriculum.

Luther College and the Decorah Iowa Public Schools would like to suggest that a clinical model for field experience offers a better approach to the problem of teacher empowerment. This model, which shifts instructional methods and student teaching to a public school that consciously identifies itself as a teacher training institution, enhances both the in-service and pre-service teacher's sense of empowerment in two ways.[1] First, it directly empowers the exceptional secondary or elementary teacher by paying them to translate their experience with and knowledge of classroom teaching into curriculum content for the undergraduate teacher candidate. It recognizes that knowledge of classroom teaching is shared by teacher educators and secondary teachers. We college teachers are years away from our classroom teaching days, so the selected practitioner who daily struggles with the challenge of teaching youngsters is a Godsend to our programs. Secondly, it provides the novice teachers with role models from the ranks of secondary and elementary teachers.

Consequently, Luther's clinical semester, while designed to increase the relevance of methods and clinical experience, has the happy results of enhancing the participating teacher's self-esteem while presenting the novice teacher with a role model of

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[1] Holmes Group, Tomorrow's Teachers, mimeographed (East Lansing, Michigan: Holmes Group, 1986), pp. 62-65. The Clinical Schools label should not be confused with the concept of Clinical Teaching. It refers instead, to the school as a participant in the teacher education process.

an active professional teacher. In our judgment this is a positive step toward the empowerment of elementary and secondary teachers.

Rationale:

It is widely recognized in the popular press and professional literature that pre-service teacher education needs to improve.[2] We need to increase the realism and direct classroom experience afforded the pre-service teacher. A medical model based on clinical instruction in a teaching hospital is often offered as a design teacher education might emulate.[3]

There is widespread suspicion that on-campus instruction, particularly in regard to teaching methods, is idealized and developed by instructors far removed from the realities of secondary and elementary schools. It is also difficult for college teachers to describe the reality of such academic support services as counseling, media, and extracurricular activities. Finally, on-campus descriptions are pale imitations of the social reality of a school with its rich interpersonal relationships and administrative structure.

Luther College's clinical program in teacher education envisions an integration of prospective teachers and theoretical instruction into the clinical setting of a public school classroom. It seeks to increase cooperation between college and school personnel, increase the active involvement of cooperating teachers, thereby improving the quality of clinical experience for both pre-service and cooperating teachers.

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[2] Penelope M. Earley, "A Summary of Eleven National Reports on Education and Their Implications for Teacher Education," Mimeographed (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, n.d.)

[3] Dona M. Kagan, "Teaching as Clinical Problem Solving: A Critical Examination of the Analogy and it's Implications," Review of Educational Research 58 (Winter 1988): pp. 484-490.

Phase one, a clinical semester for secondary teachers, is in place and has been operating successfully for the past two years. An extension of this program to include elementary teachers is currently being planned and will be initiated during the 1989-90 school year.

The Secondary Program

This program was initiated in the fall of 1987. Secondary education students take methods course work during the clinical semester. Classes are held from 8:00 to 11:00 a.m. at the clinical high school (Decorah, Iowa Community Schools) for three weeks at the beginning of the clinical semester. During this period the student teacher reports to his/her teaching assignment by 11:30 each day. Consequently such methods assignments as lesson plans, and media selection, are organically related to their teaching assignments and perceived as relevant.

The General Methods class is taught by a local secondary teacher who, in addition to coordinating the clinical semester, teaches one-half time in the Decorah secondary schools. This ongoing secondary classroom assignment gives the clinical professor unmatched credibility. The students in the program will listen and learn from such a mentor because they know he/she will, that very afternoon, face a secondary class just as they will.

In addition to the general methods content delivered by the clinical professor, several school support personnel make presentations to the group. Counselors, administrators, media consultants, curriculum specialists from the intermediate unit and local NEA officials are typical presenters.

After the initial three weeks of intensive methods instruction, the students spend five weeks in full-day student teaching. This completes their first clinical assignment. They then switch to a second assignment which varies by either grade level, subject area, or both. There is a three-day interruption between these two assignments when the students meet full days with their general methods teacher. These meetings are designed to evaluate their initial teaching experience, plan for the second half of the semester, and exchange ideas regarding such practical matters as classroom control and successful activities.

After these meetings the student moves on to his/her second assignment which is full-day clinical teaching for seven weeks. The final element of the general methods program is a two-day wrap up at the end of the semester. Included in this is a general exchange of ideas and experiences plus a formal self and program evaluation.

This general methods course earns the student three semester hours of credit. They also take a one semester hour special methods course during this clinical semester. Special methods classes are taught by qualified, (MA plus 5 years teaching experience) local teachers in specific content areas. These teachers have been drawn from Decorah and neighboring school districts. These special methods teachers, hired on an adjunct basis, schedule their methods instruction outside the school day. They are compensated at the rate of fifty dollars per contact hour. Since Luther works on a fourteen contact hours per credit module, each special methods teacher receives seven hundred dollars for teaching this content.

Program Costs

The clinical professor remains under full-time contract with the Decorah Community School District. All questions regarding seniority, fringe benefits, and master contract provisions, therefore, are avoided. Instead, Luther contracts directly with the school district which in turn designates one-half the individual's time to Luther's Clinical Professor assignment. In exchange for this Luther pays the District one-half the individual's salary and fringe benefit package.

Although the clinical professor is not legally a member of Luther's faculty, the college and department recognize the reality of the situation and extend full faculty membership to him/her. Introduction at year's beginning, full participation in Department meetings and deliberations, office space, and a key to the faculty washroom (if we had a faculty washroom) are examples of this policy.

In addition to salary costs for the clinical professor, each educational specialist making methods presentation must be paid, as well as the special methods teachers. These persons are all compensated at the rate of fifty dollars per contact hour.

The special methods teachers are expected to observe their students at least once during student teaching. Additional supervisory visits are conducted by the clinical professor and/or college supervisors. The special methods teachers are not paid for this visit, but instead the college pays for hiring a substitute teacher, thereby allowing them to visit their student. A total of eight supervising visits from all sources are provided to each student teacher.

All mileage expenses incurred by any individual working for the program are compensated at the rate of twenty-five cents per mile. Meals, telephone, and lodging expenses are also paid by the college.

Education Department funds to support this program come from the redirection of salary monies. The Department had a natural vacancy in its secondary staff for the 1987-88 year. Rather than filling this vacancy conventionally by hiring a full-time on-campus secondary specialist, we negotiated the clinical professor agreement with the local school. Thus far, it has not proven to be particularly expensive although its cost will vary from year to year, depending on the individual selected as clinical professor, and the number of special methods teachers needed. The program cost during its first year of operation was seventeen thousand, two hundred and thirty-eight dollars ($17,238). This year the program cost estimates are seventeen thousand, eight hundred fifty dollars ($17,850).

Evaluation

It would be nice to report that we had followed recommended practice by designing an evaluation plan in advance of implementing this new approach. Unfortunately, such was not the case. As is common, we liked the idea, put it in operation, and hoped for the best. We did hire a local teacher for whom we had great respect to conduct interviews of those working in the program. We also gave course evaluation forms to those students enrolled in the general methods course.

As commonly happens, those who design a program like it and feel it is successful. So do we. We did receive some suggestions from participating teachers regarding scheduling changes and calls for more help in terms of designing their special method course. These adjustments have been made.

The student evaluations of the clinical professor and their general methods course were crystal clear; they thought both were superb. That was a bit hard on us in the Department since our own past evaluations in similar on-campus courses were much more restrained. The students were never quite sure if we knew what we were talking about and they thought our stories and experiences were getting a little long in the tooth.

We have received a grant of sixteen thousand dollars ($16,000) from the State of Iowa Department of Education to evaluate and expand our clinical approach. Consequently attempts will be made during the 1989-90 school year to conduct the evaluation plan described below.

> In general we conceive that evaluation should consist of the measurement of attitudes towards the experience (clinical semester) and teaching; and measurement of knowledge about teaching skills and the school as an integrated social institution. This knowledge measure should include student analysis of hypothetical teaching situation. Currently we are working from an evaluation model suggested by Howard Gardner.

> Howard Gardner's Frames of Mind postulates a multidimensional model of human intelligence.[4] Since he believes in such nebulous intelligence as social and artistic, he is confronted with the problem of measurement. He has proposed several interesting approaches, most of which involve simulating real-life situations.
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> We hypothesize that when confronted with a teaching "problem," students who complete a clinical, as opposed to a traditional, student teaching experience will differ in at least two ways. First they will evidence a clearer understanding of the connection between theoretical information and classroom practice. Secondly, they will propose a broader range of action to solve the hypothetical problem. They will be less stereotypical in their responses than conventionally trained pre-service teachers and more like experienced teachers. They will also show a greater awareness of and willingness to turn to the many support persons available to the classroom teacher.

We anticipate developing modest instruments and conducting evaluation along lines enumerated above.

The Proposed Elementary Program

The Department plans to extend its clinical teacher education program to the elementary level during the 1989-90 school year. Because of obvious differences in curriculum and structure between elementary and secondary schools we are forced to modify the elementary program. It is easy for secondary clinical teachers to divide their time between morning methods and afternoon teaching. Such is not the case for the elementary teacher. Consequently we will retain a conventional, all semester, all day elementary student teaching experience, but will add a clinical experience during the student's Junior year.

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[4] Howard Gardner, Frames of Mind (New York: Basic Books, 1983), pp. 383-393.

Like the secondary program, prospective student teachers will split time between course work delivered in the public school by college instructors and elementary teachers, and teacher-aide experience in the elementary classroom. What is now a "Junior Block" of methods courses taking place entirely on campus, will be moved to the clinical setting of an elementary classroom.

As currently envisioned, the elementary program will be initiated spring semester 1990 with the transfer of the Junior Block from the Luther campus to the Decorah Community Schools. The student's morning will be divided between instruction in methods of teaching and actual practice in an elementary classroom. Instruction will be delivered by Luther staff and local elementary teachers.

Cost estimates for the program are not available at this time. Luther enjoys excellent rapport with the local school so we anticipate minimum charges, if any, for the use of instructional space. We also anticipate using our elementary staff members as substitutes, thus freeing local elementary teachers to make presentations to our students. This has the happy result of allowing our staff members to meet the new State of Iowa requirement that each teacher educator teach at their speciality level during each five-year period.

We doubt that all instructional costs can be covered in this swapping arrangement, but expect to use the current fifty dollars per instructional hour rate used in the secondary program so that total costs should be reasonable.

Program Content

While the clinical semester program has its own rationale and can be evaluated alone, perhaps it would be helpful to place it in the context of Luther's total teacher education program.

Luther employs a relatively unusual approach to its educational foundation requirements. These requirements are the same for all education students and involve instruction delivered

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* The "Junior Block" is a nine semester hour sequence of methods courses taken spring semester of the elementary major's junior year. Language arts, social studies, mathematics, and science methods are included. The block schedules the student's day from 8:00 to 11:30 a.m. each day of the week.

This concentrated block of courses is followed the next fall by student teaching.

not by the education department, but by the appropriate academic departments. The specific application of the parent discipline to education is made in conjunction with the survey course from that discipline. For example, all education students enroll in Psychology 30: General Psychology for three semester hours. It is the same course all students electing psychology take, but the fourth hour laboratory is replaced for education students by a two-semester educational psychology section taught by the Psychology Department.

Our rationale for this approach is twofold: it avoids duplication and since educational psychology content is a special application of the parent discipline, the discipline experts are better equipped to deliver this content than educational specialists. History and Philosophy of American Education are delivered by the History and Philosophy Departments and are coordinated with the American History survey course. Finally, the State of Iowa Human Relations requirement is met by coordinating a one semester hour Human Relations in Teaching course taught by the Education department with the Sociology/Anthropology Department's course in American Minorities.

After foundation courses the elementary and secondary programs begin to diverge. All students take a course in exceptionality and an early field experience, but while the elementary students take the methods courses that lead to their major, the secondary candidates are completing an academic major. It should be noted that all secondary candidates do take a two semester hour special methods course, taught by their respective departments before they enter the clinical teaching semester. This is particularly important since their work in a secondary classroom starts on the first day of that experience and they would be sorely handicapped with no preliminary methods at all.

Teacher Empowerment Issues

Clinical instructors are empowered in a number of expected and a few unexpected ways. It is predictable that instructors would feel greater control over and possession of the educational process by being directly involved with the training of teachers. It is predictable that they would feel value and reward for their years of experience by being asked to undertake the clinical position which, in turn, would cause them to reflect positively on those years of experience and teaching in general. It is predictable that clinical instructors should, by virtue of their actively teaching educational methods and observing pre-service teachers, examine and revitalize their own secondary-level teaching.

These expected consequences of appointing secondary teachers as clinical instructors have had positive results in each of the two years the program has been in existence. Clinical instructors obtain more ownership over the educational process and view teaching in a renewed and more vital way.

Unexpected results of the clinical instructor role are both positive and negative. Undertaking the position immediately puts the clinical instructor in a new position in the secondary school. He/she is no longer just one of the other teachers, nor on the other hand is he/she an administrator. Being responsible for the student teachers in the building, leaving to visit other schools and teachers, the clinical instructor assumes a role of authority regarding educational methods, teacher education, and to some extent educational theory and current trends in education. This creates a new position in the hierarchy of the school, one that is not well-defined. The clinical instructor meets and confers with administrators from the region, and manages crisis situations occurring in diverse classrooms in many schools. The advantages are that the clinical instructor seems to have advanced in status and responsibility. More respect accrues to the instructor from colleagues and

administrators from having been chosen to assume this role. Empowerment is related to this increased respect, and to the increase in freedom and responsibility. In short, empowerment arises from the clinical instructor's move to a professional position akin to that of a college instructor from a former position as an employee of a school system.

This result is perhaps foreseeable and certainly is positive. Somewhat more insidious is the possibility that the clinical instructor, after completing the two-year rotation in the position, is not willing to resume former full-time duties in the school. If dissatisfaction exists, it argues that the professional state of the typical teacher is less than desirable, and this, in turn, is a critique of the public education system.

If, on the other hand, clinical instructors return to full-time secondary teaching after their rotation, and if several teachers from one school hold this position, there is every expectation that a core of teachers, revitalized and much more professional as educators, could affect the teaching staff of the school positively. The empowerment experienced by the clinical instructors could generalize to others creating a more involved and professional staff. This constitutes a "best-case" scenario. It is equally possible that others on the teaching staff could react negatively to the clinical instructors if for no other reason that they have not been asked to hold the position.

Empowerment deriving from the clinical instructor's position is verifiable. The consequences of that empowerment are unclear.

Cooperating teachers are empowered because one of their colleagues shares the supervision of pre-service teachers with them. Communication is much easier because both teachers are, fundamentally, secondary school teachers; concerns are more easily shared because of that common experience; basic assumptions about the "reality of the classroom" are implicit. Furthermore, cooperating teachers are empowered when they observe that teachers like themselves are training new teachers. Their own occupation is somewhat ennobled.

Pre-service teachers are empowered because they feel there is credibility in the position of clinical instructor. They feel more assured that they will receive appropriate responses from teachers who are currently facing the same situations that they face. This increases their sense of control and confidence.

Summary

In our experience, the clinical teacher/clinical schools program in teacher education results in the empowerment of much of the involved constituency: pre-service teachers, cooperating teachers and certainly the clinical teachers.

We are pleased with Luther College's approach to clinical teacher education and feel it has moved us in a needed direction. In the context of the national forum we are strongly convinced that the clinical aspect of our program is an effective way to enhance both our undergraduates and their clinical teachers sense of empowerment.

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Captive Leaders: Problems of Classroom Authority and Institutional Power in Teaching

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Introduction

The remark, "When I close the door, my classroom is my own," is not so much an assertion of the teacher's power as it is a testament to her paradoxical situation. Teachers are authorities in their own classrooms. However, those classrooms are nested within institutions where teachers enjoy little power to shape the conditions of their work. Closing the door may reinforce the teacher's local classroom authority, but it has little effect on the institutional context of that classroom. Moreover, the closed door may intensify the teacher's voice among students, but it isolates that voice from the voices of other teachers. Finally, the isolated teacher does not participate in conversations with other speakers and listeners who are stake-holders in the educational enterprise.

Pondering this situation, educational historian Larry Cuban observed that

> the current architecture of schooling produces classrooms where the teacher is both leader and captive (1984, p. 673).

The teacher's private classroom authority and her lack of institutional power are historically related and mutually reinforcing. They help to define the limits of classroom language and learning.

Transforming teachers' authority so that it extends beyond the classroom walls and plays a part in shaping the institutional context of schooling has implications not only for the quality of teachers' work experience, but for the nature and quality of student learning. But it is risky for the captive leader to transform her role - it is risky both outside the classroom, where there has heretofore been little place for what she thinks or writes or says; and it is risky inside the classroom, where, no longer a captive leader, the teacher may try to lead in new ways to which students are ill-accustomed.

The Paradox of Authority and Disempowerment

In my work with experienced and novice teachers, I have encountered several key situations where the paradox of teachers' classroom authority and lack of institutional power has caused frustration and risk. These situations involved teachers alternately trying to mitigate their considerable classroom authority and taking greater institutional power in the name of educational improvement. Because they violate tacit and long-standing norms and role definitions, these moves by teachers have met with resistance from both administrators and students.

My first example comes from my collaborative research and in-service work with experienced teachers. For about eight years, I worked as a research colleague with a group of experienced teachers from East Lansing, Michigan, in a small group called the Written Literacy Forum (Florio-Ruane and Dohanich, 1984; Florio-Ruane, 1986). The Forum conducted studies and deliberated about the findings from research on the teaching of writing. The teachers in the group proceeded with authority to identify important research questions, design studies of practice, and sift through reports of research identifying those

ideas or insights of value to a practitioner audience. In addition, they confidently communicated about research to beginning teachers, veterans, and parents.

The teachers repeatedly declined, however, the opportunity to share what they had learned with administrators in their district. Finally, with encouragement from my colleague, Christopher Clark and myself, they agreed to talk with administrators from another district. We learned on that occasion that their misgivings were warranted. Curriculum supervisors (themselves former teachers) and building principals listened restlessly to the teachers, whispered among themselves, and went for early coffee. Only after the teachers had spoken did they turn attentively to the university researchers who had accompanied the teachers to the workshop to ask, "What did you find?"

The second clash of teacher authority and powerlessness I have witnessed is of quite a different sort. As a researcher of classroom interaction, I have been repeatedly struck by the incredible power teachers have to control the discourse of teaching and learning (Cazden, 1988). At first, like many educational critics, I thought that the teacher's domination of tasks, turns at talk, and interpretive norms was the major force in creating and recreating educational inequality. In fact, classroom discourse is the operationalizing in face-to-face communication of an educational bureaucracy that sorts, separates, and stratifies.

Recently my research has concerned the transformation of classroom discourse that occurs when teachers try to teach the writing process. This is a natural experiment because to try to change ordinary practice is to discover tacit, unspoken norms that have heretofore organized it. In my work I have begun to see that teacher authority to control discourse in the classroom is highly sensitive to outside pressure - the walls of the classroom are permeable. Teacher domination of classroom talk, despite in many cases the fervent desire to open up activities and talk so that students can take greater part in their own learning, is an uneasy resolution to the problems of too many students, too much to cover, not enough time or staff support to take educational risks and too much testing.

My personal encounters with this problem occur in a masters course I teach on "Theory, Research, and Practice in Writing" for teachers returning to Michigan State University for postgraduate work. In my class, very good teachers spend an inordinate amount of time trying to figure out how they can embrace some of the features of responsive teaching of the writing process (including conferencing, cooperative learning, sharing student texts, and the like) while no appreciable changes are made in the superstructure of schooling. This, of course, just cannot be done. And so what a researcher will see on entering the classrooms of most of these teachers, is what Cuban (1984) calls a "mixed form." The surface features look progressive and student-centered (teachers are holding conferences with children; children are working together; skills are not being taught by drill in isolation), but the teacher holds the dominant interpretive framework. The teacher determines what will be discussed, which skills will be introduced when, even how the peer groups will talk to one another when out of her sight.

Teachers have great authority in the classroom, but that authority is delegated from the institution within which they have little power. So, teachers have authority in order to teach in ways historically valued by the institution at large. This is the "architecture" of which Cuban speaks when he describes the teacher as both leader and captive. Even, or perhaps especially, when they attempt to reform classroom practice, teachers often find that this architecture greatly limits their movement and options. Thus they find themselves, in Cuban's words,

> trapped in the clogged intersection between old blueprints for innovations and new reform impulses to achieve what may well be unachievable (op cit, p. 663).

One of my students is a Chinese teacher of English as a second language at a university in Beijing. With mixed emotions, she has spent the last term, not at the barricades, but re-thinking her practice in East Lansing, Michigan. She discovered, like many of her American colleagues, that you cannot teach much English if you permit only one or two word answers from students - or if their writing consists of filling in blanks. Moreover, you cannot teach much critical thinking if American literature - the vehicle by means of which they are to learn to read, write, and speak English - is taught as a canon to be memorized rather than a body of texts to be pondered, debated, deliberated about. But my student is afraid of what she sees her American classmates trying to do in their own classrooms. Reacting to the recommendations of writing educators like Donald Graves and Donald Murray to open up opportunities for students to select topics, talk about text, write multiple drafts, and help one another, my Chinese student asked, "Won't empowering the students disempower the teacher?"

If the teacher's power is limited to keeping social and intellectual order in the classroom, the answer is, "Yes." But her success at this sort of teaching is hardly success, because, as numerous reformers since the turn of the century have argued, this is the lowest common denominator of teaching. It is not teaching toward higher order thinking, toward the acquisition of culture, toward literacy as a tool for making and knowing the world.

Where Did the Old Blueprints Come From and Why are They Still Here?

My final example of the risks and frustrations of the teacher's classroom authority coexisting with her institutional powerlessness comes from my work with pre-service teachers. These derive in part from their having learned about teaching by observation from their vantage point as pupils (Lortie, 1975). They have seen teachers dominate their educational lives for upwards of fifteen years before they take the wheel and try to teach themselves. They have not seen, because it is largely invisible and unspoken, the institutional forces pressing on teachers, the dilemmas thus created and daily resolved, in short, what Jackson called the "hidden world of teacher thinking." Thus the intending teachers understandably take their first turn at teaching preoccupied by control and not nearly so concerned with pedagogy. In fact, to many beginners with whom I have worked, good teaching is thought to be the ability to control the social and academic comings and goings of children (Florio-Ruane and Lensmire, 1989).

What I, as a teacher educator do - in the name, by the way, of trying to encourage these young teachers to become more critical and assertive in school organizations - is to assign them the painfully countercultural task of critiquing the experienced practice they witness - and in so doing, of critiquing their own tacit assumptions of what teaching is and how it is accomplished (Florio-Ruane, 1989). This task is countercultural because it calls into question so many of the "givens" that constrain teaching and lead it to look as it does. Many of those "givens" have been a part of the educational landscape in our society for so long that they begin to look like unquestionable "brute facts" rather than provisional (and revisable) "institutional facts" (Searle, 1969). Consider just a few found by Cuban to prevail in American education almost from the outset of mass mandatory public schooling until the current moment:

> Compulsory attendance, graded schools, self-contained classrooms. Social promotion policies. Carnegie units, 50-minute periods, required courses, vocational education, mandated achievement tests (ibid).

Of these Cuban observes significantly that they "all were once innovations that reformers pushed for all children, yet these reformers created over the decades a Rube Goldberg machine ill-designed to achieve a growing parade of goals" (ibid).

When beginners learn to teach, it is very difficult for them to question the status quo. Some theorists have argued that this is a feature of their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). Others have stressed the self-selection process for teaching whereby good pupils who have succeeded in status quo schooling chose teaching to recreate it for another generation. Still others point to the conservative nature of teacher education and its complicity with the schools during the induction period (Tabachnick, Popkewitz, and Zeichner, 1979-80). Old formulas are dispensed; student teachers are not supported to question; novice teachers nearly drown in their first tough assignments, picking up tricks of the trade, not critique, from veterans. Still others suggest that the institution of the school itself is authoritarian. It creates in young teachers the features of authoritarian personalities - and the teachers pass these traits on to their pupils (Waller, 1932). Some critics say that this is all a conspiracy to reify the notion that teachers are conservative, silent, and obedient. They argue that teachers have tried to speak out and teach in new forms and to change the institutions where they work. But, because these voices were raised by women and minority teachers, and because they raised nonconformist ideas, they were not heard, or they were silenced (Delpit, 1988; Casey, 1988).

There are a set of historical images that help to maintain an educational culture in which teachers are empowered to speak a great deal to children and not very much about education to adults. One, as Thelen (1973) points out, is the image of the servant. The teacher remains a civil servant, certified by public authority to educate the young. But the roots of the pedagogue are in antiquity. Pedagogues in Greece and Rome were servants hired by affluent parents to take their children to sites for edification such as the school and the theater. Teachers are only in recent history becoming highly educated civil servants publicly concerned with their own professionalization.

In addition to the haunting image of the teacher as servant of the state and its families, is the very idea of the public school as maintainer of the social order. A modern institution devised to respond to the nineteenth century's modern problems, the schools are testament to Americans hope that well-managed public institutions could restore order and safety to a society in considerable crisis. In that institution, teachers (often young, female and less than well-educated) were charged to provide some form of basic, universal education and also to provide socialization to poor, often immigrant children and youth. These youth were felt to be at risk because many of the ordinary stabilizing and socializing institutions of our culture seemed threatened by modernity: churches, families, small towns, neighborhoods. According to David Cohen,

> though most history books don't say so, one powerful motive for the establishment of public schools was concern about the decay of social order and the breakdown of collective values (1976, p. 553).

America has apparently been ambivalent about schools' functions. Cohen argues, for example, that not until Dewey did Americans begin to frame a coherent (if perhaps unrealistic) vision of schools that could both help ensure order and be adventurous places attendant to the growth of the child's intelligence. Teachers, if historical analysis offers any assistance, have been relatively invisible or inaudible in this long public conversation about schools' functions.

While there have been some notable exceptions where teacher involvement in school reform was actively sought and successfully managed, there are few examples and even fewer records of what teachers actually did inside those Rube Goldberg-like places where reform upon reform was merged, somehow, with preexisting structure (which many have argued has long since outlived its nineteenth century modernity and usefulness). In any case, teachers' influence on the process of education was minor not only in the relative silence of teachers about reform, but in the paucity of records of their thought and work. This problem is exemplified in the utter absence until the last fifteen years of a research program on teaching and teacher thinking (Clark and Peterson, 1986). Until then, according to several contemporary reviews of the field (Cohen, 1988; Cuban, 1984), to study learners and learning was thought to be sufficient to learn about teaching.

But to study teaching in its own right illuminates the hidden world of their thinking and helps us identify those places where institutional structures, tradition, and cultural beliefs get in the way of good pedagogy. When we study teaching, we find that teachers have historically created (and apparently still do) a myriad of "mixed forms," compromises, resolutions to dilemmas within their classroom (Lampert, 1985). But in the last two decades we have begun to learn much more about how and why they do this - from research on teaching and teacher thinking in which the teachers have been key informants, and from a growing body of teacher research - where teachers use multiple research designs and forms of reporting to record their own thought and work. These projects are essential to the conversation about education in America. As these stories and their tellers enter the public talk and texts of education, teachers will be significant actors whose views are considered when reforms of classroom practice are floated and when policies that contrain that practice within public institutions are debated.

Teacher empowerment of this sort is an instance of slow cultural change. It challenges taken-for-granted imagery of the teacher and of schooling that has been with us a long time. It upsets a nostalgic and superficially neat system in which order is kept in isolated rooms by teachers whose doors are closed to one another and to those who set the conditions for their work. Opening the doors and the conversations promises to let fresh air in, not only on stuffy institutions and classrooms, but on the tasks, talk, and learning within them.

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Educational Philosophy and Teacher Empowerment

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To do educational philosophy is to pose what have been called "queer questions"[1] with respect to what we, as teachers, are doing in this world. "Queer questions" are those that cannot be answered empirically or logically. They differ both from social scientific questions and from those that can be resolved within a formal or mathematical system. Indeed, once they are translated into the kinds of problems that can be settled through observation or experiment, or through purely logical or linguistic analysis, they are no longer philosophical. As I view them, they must be posed in the midst of life and from the situated vantage points of human beings existing in some "we-relation"[2] in a world they share. They become significant when they are raised with a clear sense of context, of the interpreted experience conceived of as "reality." Hannah Arendt, in her "Prologue" to The Human Condition, may make it clearest when she writes that she is concerned with a "reconsideration of the human condition from the vantage point of our newest experiences and our most recent fears." She goes on: "This, obviously, is a matter of thought, and thoughtlessness - the heedless recklessness or hopeless confusion or complacent repetition of 'truths' which have become trivial and empty - seems to me among the outstanding characteristics of our time. What I propose, therefore, is very simple: it is nothing more than to think what we are doing."[3]

What does this sort of thinking have to do with teacher empowerment? It seems to me, in the first place, that we would not be preoccupied with empowerment if we did not believe that teachers were somehow caught up by the complex play of mechanisms Michel Foucault described as a "technology of power." He did not mean power exerted by one man or several at the apex of a structure, "some identifiable individual or group of individuals who decide to implement it so as to further their interests or facilitate their utilization of the social body...."[4] He meant that which characterized a mode of discourse dominant at a particular time, or the ordered procedures for the production and distribution of statements that added up to "truth," or even the systems of examination that determined what was acceptable and what was required of everyone willing to be "normalized." Teachers, and many other workers in the human services, feel themselves enmeshed somehow in almost invisible programs or systems of hegemony. Viewing the impacts of power in that fashion, it is not surprising that Foucault emphasized the importance of thought. Thought, he said, "is what allows one to step back from this way of acting or reacting, to present it to oneself as an object of thought and question it as to its meaning, its conditions, and its goals. Thought is freedom in relation to what one does, the motion by which one detaches oneself from it, establishes it as an object, and reflects on it as a problem.[5] In examining some of the uses of educational philosophy, I am going to explore this notion along with Hannah Arendt's, because both strike me as being potentially emancipatory. I want also to look at the questions that have so much to do with teachers' self-definition in these days: those having to do with the technological and corporate demands pressing down on the schools; those having to do with liberal education, with "cultural literacy," with pluralism, with perspectivism, with multiplicity.

To speak of self-definition is to open up one of the significant domains in philosophy: namely, the consideration of what might be called the "human reality." Obviously, we are surrounded on all sides by descriptions of human nature and modes of behavior, as we are by accounts of diverse cultures. These, however, do not answer the age-old question, "What is man

that thou are mindful of him?" Or the necessary question that completes the other: "What is woman?" They do not respond to Hamlet's outcry when he recalls the rendering of the human being as the "paragon of animals" and then asks, "And what is he to me, this quintessence of dust?" Nor the query inherent in poet Muriel Rukeyser's lines: "What would happen if one woman told the truth about her life? The world would split open." Nor the fearsome questions being raised today about the barbarism lurking below the surfaces, the repressed violence, the narcissism, the absence of concern.

There are, in educational philosophy, many analytic and linguistic approaches centering around the clarification of the concept of the individual, the concept of the person. Confusions may be cleared up when, say, R. S. Peters stresses the idea that the concept of a 'person' implies the existence of a "center of consciousness - a center of choice and evaluation."[6] At a moment when so many of those preoccupied with the nation's economic competitiveness are calling the young "human resources," the philosopher's may be a useful reminder. Still, Peters' approach is typically detached and cool; it is the viewpoint of the rigorous philosophical observer, distanced from lived reality in all its ambiguity and uncertainty. Not surprisingly, he posits cognitive excellence as a prime goal of education; and he says repeatedly that the concept of education "implies the intentional bringing about of a desirable state of mind."[7] The view of what is most worthwhile and the emphasis on "state of mind" both assume the importance of rationality, autonomy, and clarity above all things. Like other analytic philosophers concerned with the meaning of terms and the clarification of concepts, Peters shows little concern for the concreteness of a world racked by inequities and fragmentations, as he evinces little interest in praxis or the difference it might make in such a world. For him and his colleagues, liberal education involves an initiation into the forms of knowledge, and this is identified with the development of mind.[8] Even as I would grant the importance of cognition and the uses of concept clarification, however, I find constricted and even sterile an educational philosophy that says so little about lived experience, standpoint, and relationship.

Some of the "queer questions" have to do with the view of liberal education developed within the analytic frame; but, before posing them, I want to raise the question of how teachers choose themselves in the first place, what they choose themselves to be. For John Dewey, Hannah Arendt, Paulo Freire, and existential philosophers like Jean Paul Sartre and Maurice Merleau-Ponty, no concept can encompass the human reality. Dewey wrote that "the self is not something ready-made, but something in continuous formation through choice of action...."[9] For Arendt, nothing entitles us to assume that human beings have "a nature or essence in the same sense as other things." For her, the conditions of our existence can never "explain" what we are or answer the question of who we are "for the simple reason that they never condition us absolutely."[10] Unlike the analysts, these people see the living being dynamically in open situations. Paulo Freire said that "humanization," after all, is the central problem as we live.[11] We are conscious of our incompleteness and of our vocation, which is to affirm ourselves as persons and overcome alienation, even as we see the alternative possibility of dehumanization. Humanization has to do with naming the world and transforming it; it is through dialogue that we achieve our significance as human beings.[12] This is in accord with Sartre's view of our having continually to choose ourselves against objectness, to seek out our freedom in a resisting world.[13] And Merleau-Ponty, in his turn, viewing human beings in an ongoing dialectic relation with the forces that determine, wrote: "It is by being unrestrictedly and unreservedly what I am at present that I have a chance of moving forward; it is by living my time that I am able to understand other times, by plunging into the present and the world, by taking on deliberately what I am fortuitously, by willing what I will and doing what I do that I can go further."[14] At length he said that only through choice and action could we cut loose from anchorage.

Teachers confronting their own submergence, feeling weary, often, and helpless under the weight of bureaucratic supervision and control, might ask themselves about their own weariness, their sense of being manipulated from without. And, in asking, they might wonder what this signifies with regard to their vision of educating - of knowing, of valuing, of imagining what might be. Are they, in their own felt powerlessness, training those Arendt called "jobholders and consumers"?[15] Do they intend to teach for communities of the competent, or for communities of citizens?[16] Just as importantly, do they see themselves teaching insular children, islands of autonomy in an intersubjective world? Do they themselves choose themselves as separate, self-sufficient, creatures of an individualist ideology, mystified by laissez-faire? Or can they think relationally and choose themselves in connectedness as participants in a social world?[16] There are no right or wrong responses to questions like these. They are philosophical questions, existential questions. A thoughtfulness is required of those risking responses, those willing "to step back from this way of acting and reacting....," to break for a moment with the automatic and the habitual, to go in search.

From the classical age in Ancient Greece to the recent events in China's Tiananmen Square, there have been images and incidents of people breaking with illusion or automatism or domination, deliberately opening spaces in which to choose. We might think of the prisoners breaking loose in the cave rendered in Plato's Republic and of their difficult ascent to the sunlight, of men and women throughout Europe refusing superstition and authoritative rule in the 18th century, of working people in this country insisting on a vote, on being heard. We might recall the Civil Rights movement and the high moments of the women's movement. All these are instances of individual human beings coming together, giving form to their discontents, breaking with the "everydayness" of their ordinary lives, choosing the search. The narrator in Walker Percy's The Moviegoer says: "To become aware of the possibility of the search is to be onto something. Not to be onto something is to be in despair."[17] Albert Camus warned of this despair when he wrote of the mind keeping silent "in the motionless world of its hopes...." But then he said, "with its first move this world cracks and tumbles: an infinite number of shimmering fragments is offered to the understanding. We must despair of ever reconstructing the familiar, calm surface which would give us peace of heart."[18] Only professional rationalists, he said, can offer abstract and generalized certainties. "That universal reason, practical or ethical, that determinism, those categories that explain everything are enough to make a decent man laugh. They have nothing to do with the mind."

Teachers willing to confront the "shimmering fragments offered to the understanding" rather than taking refuge in remaking "the familiar, calm surface" of things are teachers likely to choose themselves as explorers and interpreters, not merely transmitters of received ideas. They are likely to be the kinds of teachers who would feel that the sub-title of E. D. Hirsch, Jr.'s Cultural Literacy is enough to make a decent person laugh. You may recall: "What Every American Needs to Know" and perhaps wonder at any person making such a claim. Moving into the philosophic domain in which questions are to be posed about knowing and knowledge, meaning, truth, imagination, reason, intuition and belief, such teachers may react with skepticism to the Hirschian emphasis on content or "facts," the scorn of "critical thinking," the disinterest in process.[19] For one thing, more and more doubts have been expressed in the last decades with regard to what is called the "correspondence theory of truth,"[20] meaning that a true statement is required to correspond to something existing objectively in the outside world.

The very notion of objectivity, in fact, has been challenged significantly in ways of great significance for conceptions of teaching; since the challenge turns attention away from an abstract ideal or some non-human reality to what Richard Rorty describes as a

"solidarity" with a chosen community, with the concrete persons around.[21] This appears to make problematic efforts to establish rational frameworks in which all disagreements or conflicts can be finally resolved. Even the kind of foundation implicitly identified with "cultural literacy" becomes questionable in a pluralist, uncertain world. There is a place, of course, for reason in the effecting of relationships, and creating provisional orders; but the focus, when it comes to the knowledge undertaking, is on lived experience and the sense-making within situations the quest for meaning requires. To do philosophy with regard to this is to become aware of the range of ways of knowing and the "province of meaning"[22] each one sets forth. The idea of a hierarchy of knowing or understanding gives way to the idea of multiple perspectives, each one made possible by the "cognitive style" distinctive of each province of meaning - that of the natural sciences, that of the social sciences, that of the arts and humanities. Moving into any one of these spaces, persons retain a sense of their biographies, their background stories, as they are aware of their locations in the social world. Engaging, for instance, with works of history or literature in the realm of the humanities, they learn to inquire and conceptualize and imagine according to the norms of particular interpretive communities; but they do so in the realization that the ground of their interpretations is to be found in their lived lives, and that the perspectives they learn to develop open them to the intersubjective, everyday world.

If, I believe, they enter these provinces or communities with a consciousness of project, a way of inserting themselves into the world, the learning they do will be the learning of persons, of practitioners. Not only will it be a question of the development of mind. There will be an orientation to action, to what Schon calls "reflective practice" or "reflection-in-action."[23] Feeling, intuition, imagination, and practical judgements will all be involved. If teachers do indeed choose themselves as a community of persons ready to take initiatives, prepared to embark on new beginnings, their teaching will become their project; and a project is the means by which one does create identity and even a sense of authorship in the world. To become initiated into the liberal arts in connection with a project is quite different from becoming initiated for the sake of the knowledge itself or for the sake of the development of mind. This provides an argument, it seems to me, for integrating liberal arts education with the fundamentals of teacher education.

John Passmore has written of teaching as a triadic relationship in which someone teaches something to somebody.[24]
Before anybody begins to teach a subject, he says, that person should be encouraged "to think about it in a particular way," to ask what is the point of teaching it at all, and by what criteria the individual is to judge her/his success in teaching it, what part it plays in the general education of a young person, what students can get out of it who are not going to make it their career. To develop a conception of appropriate method and even to understand the kinds of open capacities that can be nurtured in the plurality of the young require a strong sense of grounding in what is to be taught. At the same time, a consciousness of such matters cannot but inform and illuminate the subject matter at hand.

This is partly because, for all the talk of "cultural literacy," teaching is not a matter of communicating content or a set of "facts." Nor is it solely a process of engaging students, as Paul Hirst writes, with "complex conceptual schemes...and the arts and techniques of different types of reasoning and judgment."[25] As I view it, teachers who come to their tasks with recognition that, in their own experience as well as in their students, there is bound to be a tension between the schematized or systematized and what Jerome Bruner calls "the vicissitudes of human intentions,"[26] are teachers who are in search themselves. They are "on to something," as Walker Percy's character says; and they may be able to communicate to their students some of what that signifies. In the general domains of philosophy today, it happens that there is a focal concern with the problem of endowing

experience with meaning in contrast to the more traditional concern with how to know the truth. When Bruner talks about narrative as one of the "modes of thought,"[27] in addition to the paradigmatic logico-scientific mode, he has in mind not merely an attentiveness to the human condition, which is seldom captured by science and logical reasoning. He is talking as well about the diversity of human stories, something that surely has to be taken into account when we try to engage persons in the several "provinces of meaning," the several ways of making sense.

Students can be brought to understand that the disciplines, in the humanities as well as the science, are human constructions. So are what are called the "canons," the standards, the criteria of merit; and, as we have surely learned in recent times, they are open to reconceptualization and to change. Women's studies, Black studies, the new discoveries in Third World literatures and scholarship: all have made us see the exclusionary character of so much that we have called knowledge, even as the works of Gabriel Marquez, Carlos Fuentes, Maya Angelou, Toni Morrison, Maxine Kong Kingston, and (may I add?) Salman Rushdie have provided us new ways of seeing, feeling, and imagining. If we keep in mind that our major concern is with experience and developing perspectives on the worlds we live together, we will not be so troubled about the quantity of the content mastered. We will be concerned, as we should be, with students understanding what it means to enter particular interpretive communities and read (or write, or listen, or represent) according to the rules and principles acknowledged by the interpreters among whom they are choosing to work.

Whether students are reading Tom Jones, Jane Eyre, Moby Dick, Beloved, Love in a Time of Cholera, or Billy Bathgate, they have to recognize that the book before them creates an as/if, an imaginary world which is not to be confused with the commonsense everyday world. There may be disagreements among critics and interpreters about structures, the meaning of meaning, the connection between the text and other texts; but there are certain criteria that are generally recognized. If they are forgotten, if people read Doctorow's Billy Bathgate, for instance, as if it were the long suppressed true account of the gangster Dutch Schultz's criminal career, they are sacrificing an opportunity to see more in their own expanded experience and to achieve the book as meaningful, not simply to register it as factual and check it off against other facts about a gangster who lived half a century ago.

Sartre, reminding his readers of the importance of active involvement with literary texts, spoke of reading as a "synthesis of perception and creation."[28] The object - the printed pages - had to impose its own structures; but the subject - the reader - was needed to disclose that object, to make there be a novel, a work of art. This meant that the reader was "conscious of disclosing in creating, of creating by disclosing"; and, if that reader were "inattentive, tired, stupid, or thoughtless," she/he would never grasp the relations in the book nor realize the meanings to be discovered through the language. Not only does this shed light on interpretive reading; it relates to what many philosophers are saying today about knowing and pursuing meanings, and even what they assert about "reality." In other words, Sartre makes particularly clear the interdependence of subject and object and the important fact that the meanings of a phenomenon (be it a literary text, a street battle, a drug sale, a child's journal, a playground, a shattered window) are contingent on a certain mode of human attending, active attending and active interpretation, not the blank passivity of powerlessness.

I find in what is called "reader reception theory" an approach to interpretive reading closely related to Sartre's and, at once, suggestive of several analogies. According to this theory, any imaginative text has to be achieved as meaningful between, as it were, two

poles: that of the book as written by an author and the subjectivity of a reader. The reader undertakes a kind of concretization. She/he "passes through the various perspectives offered by the text and relates the different views and patterns to one another...."[29] Doing so, the reader "sets the work in motion and so sets himself in motion too." The perspectives offered by the text are those of the author, explicit or not, of the narrative point of view, of the person consciously playing a role as reader, of the patterns created by certain tropes and metaphors, and of the vantage points of the characters in the book. What we find, when we take this approach, is an example of how knowing involves us with constructs and patterns of thinking devised by our forerunners and contemporaries. But we also find that, through looking through what might be called these social schemata or patterns, we can bring into being meanings that are distinctively ours. As an example, we might recall Virginia Woolf's To the Lighthouse, which depends so clearly upon the play of multiple perspectives and impressions of the real. We could not make sense of it at all if we did not participate in some understandings of British university life and social patterns, of the Hebrides as a vacation place, of marriage in all its ambivalence and complex concern, of the First World War and the damage done, of mother-child relationships, of (considering Lily Briscoe) impressionist art, of the conflict set up by gender tensions (window vs. lighthouse; feeling vs. logic; relatedness vs. control). All these are functions of the social construction of knowledge. An immigrant from Cambodia, say, or a part of India untouched by the British, might have a difficult time entering the novel. When a reader shares the author's social reality sufficiently, that reader can look through the various vantage points: Mrs Ramsay's, Mr. Ramsay's, those of the eight Ramsay children, Lily Briscoe's, Charles Tansley's, Minta's, the many others present and absent. Many will not mesh or cohere; the reader's imagination will have to fill in gaps, bridge gulfs between various ways of seeing; but, at the end, that reader will have constituted a distinctive "world," not quite like any other, because it is a world made out of the stuff of the reader's experience. As Iser says, a new experience emerges as our reading reshapes and restructures what we have already stored. What actually happens during this process "can again only be experienced when past feelings, views, and values have been evoked and then made to merge with the new experience. The old conditions the form of the new, the new selectively restructures the old."[30] Iser draws upon John Dewey's work when he says this; so it may not be surprising that the very description of what happens is analogous to descriptions of learning made by Dewey and by ourselves. I would only add, with Paulo Freire in mind, that the process can find a kind of consummation in dialogue or in what Dewey called communication. Sharing the prejudgments, the orientations of a culture, individual persons (all of them social beings) can come together to articulate distinctive perspectives and, through doing so, bring about a restructuring, a renewing of what is held in common. I should like to believe that, through talking about a Woolf novel or any other such many-layered text, talking - as it were - in public, people can constitute something like a new community among themselves. Perhaps, to use Rorty's language, they can add their own voices to the "conversation" that has been going on over the generations[31] and attain a richer reciprocity.

Similar things can happen if they enter into study of the sciences viewed in Stephen Toulmin's terms as another "construal of reality."[32] Surely, they can happen if history is taught, in part to shed light upon contemporary experience in this country and in the world. Imagination can find a place in such a study, as Hayden White has written, if authentic efforts are made to enter sympathetically the "minds or consciousnesses of human agents long dead, to empathize with the intentions and motivations of actors impelled by beliefs and values which may differ totally from anything the historian might himself honor in his own life...."[33] There are a thousand unresolved questions to be held in mind with regard to history as it relates to human memory, exemplifed today by the story of the Holocaust, the Palestinian uprootedness, and the present events on the West Bank. Not only do questions

with respect to these happenings remain open; so do questions about the discipline itself, politics as it plays upon history, the issues of narrativity and truth.

The proponents of "cultural literacy" lament the lack of "background information" respecting the facts of history. Philosophers think of history as continually revealing more and more meanings; and numbers of them focus on particulars in the past, the role of chance, the countless choices that have been made by living human beings, some of whose voices have never been heard. Foucault has reminded us of how history can be done and ought to be done from the ground of our lived landscape, and how, in this domain as well as others, knowledge should be viewed "as perspective"[34] and with an awareness of the contesting voices, the submerged voices, those continually breaking the silences to turn attention to undiscovered aspects of the past. This kind of approach, it seems to me, can be integrated with what we know about the teaching of history in different places and to different youth. Perhaps most important of all, it may empower by communicating a sense of agency as teachers, like their students, reach out from the ground of the lived.

This brings me back to the domain of values, the space in which teachers must concern themselves with choosing according to some conceptions of what is good and what is right. We can call some of the choices that have to be made ethical choices, because they demand critical consideration of how principles are to be regarded, practical judgments in the midst of situations, feelings, anticipations of consequences, concern, commitment, care. For a long time, in the western tradition, the emphasis in this sphere was on the importance of rational autonomy in the making of moral choices and the giving of good reasons for those choices, reasons given relevance by the abstract and generalized rules known as principles. Those who recall the interest in Lawrence Kohlberg's approach to moral education[35] will remember that moral development, in his schema, culminated in the ability to make rational moral choices in the light of the principles of justice and regard for human rights. Most people are aware of the challenge to that view embodied in women's discoveries that female development followed a different course than did males, and that adulthood for women entailed an expansive sense of relatedness, connectedness, and concern for others.[36] Rather than referring to some version of the Golden Rule or to the idea of human rights, women are prone to think in terms of mutuality and responsibility. For Nel Noddings, moral acts are those rooted in memories of caring and being cared for; rational principles are not what move persons to treat one another with decency, kindness, and concern.[37] It is in large measure a matter of being able to look through others' eyes, to realize that others' existential possibilities might well be our own. Appealing though this is, there remains, especially in the widening circles of human relationship, a felt need for some sort of impartialism, for a responsiveness to principles of freedom and equity and regard with implications for every person, no matter how alien, no matter how strange.

In a society marked by so much indifference and carelessness, by technicist values like effectiveness and efficiency, it can be extraordinarily difficult for teachers to feel themselves to be moral agents. Yet, as we know, teachers are continuously confronted with moral and ethical situations that call upon them to decide what is good or right and, in some fashion, to nurture an ethical sensitivity or a formation of conscience in those they teach. Drug addictions, violence, cheating, child abuse, rape: these are the extreme instances of violation in contemporary society. Whether or not they are ever faced with particular instances of such crimes, teachers nonetheless have to choose themselves with respect to them, even as they have to ponder what would constitute a decent and humane public space. They cannot become like the Buchanans in <u>The Great Gatsby</u> - simply "careless people" who "smashed up things and creatures and then retreated back into their money or their vast carelessness, or whatever it was that kept them together and let other people clean up the mess they had made...."[38] Somehow or other, if only because they are

teachers, they have - like Albert Camus's Tarrou in The Plague - to learn a kind of modesty. "All I maintain," he says, "is that on this earth there are pestilences and there are victims, and it's up to us as far as possible, not to join forces with pestilences."[39] And he speaks of the need to exert one's will, to choose integrity and purity.

Now I am aware, often bitterly aware, of how difficult it is to carve out a space to choose - indeed, how difficult it is to think what we are doing in this overly administered, fury-haunted world. But I believe that if teachers in our schools do not confront the moral challenge facing us, the future of our society may be far too much like a "brave new world," a dystopia that might be comfortable for the many but a denial of what we fundamentally believe to be decent and humane. There is a recent book called Accident: A Day's News by Christa Wolf. The day she renders is the day in which the disaster at Chernobyl becomes known in Germany, where the narrator lives in a country place. It is also the day when her beloved brother is having a delicate brain operation. We are presented, therefore, with technology in its two aspects: the gross and destructive, the careless on the one hand; the delicate and restorative on the other. The book deals with fusion rather than fission, with an effort to create some kind of order in experience. Near the beginning, the narrator talks to her daughter, asking her to tell her about the children. She writes of the terrible pictures that keep surging up into her mind: "I was once more forced to admire the way in which everything fits together with a sleepwalker's precision: the desire of most people for a comfortable life, their tendency to believe the speakers on raised platforms and the men in white coats; the addiction to harmony and the fear of contradiction of the many seem to correspond to the arrogance and hunger for power, the dedication to profit, unscrupulous inquisitiveness, and self-infatuation of the few. So what was it that didn't add up in this equation?"[40] She turns to the children, to the look of the grass, to the concreteness and the beauty of the earth and sky. At the end, when she hears her brother has survived, she says: "How difficult it would be, brother, to take leave of this earth."

One of the fundamental challenges, I think, is to study the equation and keep trying to discover what does not "add up." We can do something about the desire to submerge in a comfortable life, the tendency to believe blindly, the dedication to profit, even the self-infatuation of the few. And surely we can do something about loving the earth. It will take imagination; it will require curricula shaped around the several arts, as well as the humanities; it will take the tapping of multiple intelligences. I have tried to suggest that, even in the midst of generalized formulations of instrumental rationality, even with the desire for familiar, calm surfaces, more and more people are coming to understand the sense in which humane learning must refer to the intersubjectively lived world. To say that learning is experiential and grounded is not to take an anti-intellectual position. To link learning to praxis is not to undermine the disciplines nor to distort the perspectives opened by the traditional "forms of life." It is still possible to take a view of teacher education as a dimension of liberal education conceived as anti-foundational, dialogical, responsive to vantage points and, at once, involve students with the great "conversation" as it moves on over time. But the subject matter of the conversation, like the substance of the interpreted world, should never be subsumed under the taken-for-granted. Sartre wrote "if I am given this world with its injustices, it is not so that I might contemplate them coldly, but that I might animate them with my indignation, that I might disclose them...as injustices, that is, as abuses to be suppressed."[41] It is when we identify injustices, deficiencies, vacancies, that we are moved to create values and, indeed, to act to secure them as we act in the name of change.

I would like to see the perspectives we open through interpretive study and critique allowing more and more students to perceive the kinds of alternatives that might allow them to reach out in passion and in thoughtfulness to transform and to repair. I would like

to see public spaces opening out and young people being enabled to speak in their own voices in the presence of others, as they try from their multiple locations to bring into being a common world. This is the philosopher's voice responding to "queer questions," trying to provoke others to think what they are doing, knowing there is no stopping place, aware that the search goes on.

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Empowering Teachers: How the Teacher Education Programs Contribute to Professional Status, Knowledge, and Decision Making

by

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Mediocrity in the schools has placed our children at risk while worldwide competition has challenged our international economic standing in commerce, industry, and technology. Due to this, the status of the teaching profession has fallen as policymakers have begun to question the effectiveness of our schools' products and processes. Teachers, on the other hand, argue that empowering them will help reconstruct the aims and methods of education and make them more relevant to daily, national, and international concerns.

Even though teachers have made substantial salary gains, monetary rewards still fail to keep up with other professions and many teachers say they will leave the field, indicating that something other than extrinsic reward is at work.[1] Empowering teachers will require a multifaceted approach to educational reform. Recommendations from the report, A Nation At Risk, suggest that teaching can be made more respected and rewarded if certain steps are taken:

> set higher standards for entry into the profession;
> raise admission requirements for teacher education;
> improve the curriculum of teacher education;
> lengthen the school day or school year and make more effective use of the school day;
> increase salaries through implementing merit pay;
> add an additional month of employment with extra pay;
> grants and loans should be used to attract outstanding students to the teaching profession;
> status differentiation;
> using master teachers to help redesign teacher education and supervise teachers during probation.[2]

The Carnegie Report also received national attention. A Nation Prepared called for specific reforms in teacher education:

1) make teachers' salaries and career opportunities competitive with those in other professions;
2) require a bachelor's degree in the arts and sciences as a prerequisite for the professional study of teaching;
3) relate incentives for teachers to schoolwide student performance, and provide schools with technology, services, and staff essential to teacher productivity;
4) develop a new professional curriculum in graduate schools of education leading to a Masters in Teaching degree, based on systematic knowledge of teaching and including internships and residencies in the schools;

5) create a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, organized with a regional and state membership structure, to establish high standards for what teachers need to know and be able to do, and to certify teachers that meet these standards;
6) restructure schools to provide a professional environment for teaching, freeing them to decide how best to meet state and local goals for children while holding them accountable for student progress;
7) restructure the teaching force and introduce a new category of lead teachers with the proven ability to provide active leadership in redesigning the schools and in helping colleagues to uphold high standards of learning and teaching;
8) mobilize the nation's resources to prepare minority youngsters for teaching careers.[3]

Seeing the responses to these reports and other problems in education as being far too slow, a group of Deans of Education of a few major research institutions began to initiate their own reforms. The Holmes Group specified several general goals and many specific ones to improve teacher education and, thus, further empower teachers. General goals included the following:

a) to make the education of teachers intellectually more solid;
b) to recognize differences in teachers' knowledge, skill, and commitment, in their education, certification, and work;
c) to create standards of entry to the profession - examinations and educational requirements - that are professionally relevant and intellectually defensible;
d) to connect our own institutions to schools;
e) to make schools better places for teachers to work and learn.[4]

Specific goals focused on four areas of concern: the institutional environment for teacher education, faculty in teacher education, students in teacher education, and the curriculum for teachers.[5]

In addition to raising entry, exit, and certification requirements, more on-the-job training is needed. Properly sequenced clinical experiences can enrich the knowledge base of future teachers. These may help the college student see what the daily problems in teaching encompass so they can decide if teaching is the career they really want to pursue. They also get a chance to apply theories and practices studied on campus. Some of the clinical experiences may include: observation, tutoring, simulation, microteaching, student teaching, internship, teacher induction.

Teacher induction has become popular in many areas of the United States. As suggested by Johnson, Collins, DuPuis, and Johansen, these programs are designed to help first-year teachers.[6] Some features include: on-site visitations, free courses, hot lines, and conferences dealing with issues that concern problems for beginning teachers. The institution that certifies the new teacher can have direct telephone lines to professors that are active in the teacher education program so that as problems arise possible solutions may be dealt with immediately. On-site visitations would help keep the teacher education institution accountable for the quality performance of its graduate and could also help

solve problems as they arise in the work setting. Conferences could feature keynote speakers who are known well to educators, but could also allow new teachers an opportunity to participate as presenters, moderators, or learners in the continuing process of graduate education. A free course offered by the home teacher education institution would help the new teacher stay abreast of new theories and practices in his or her field.

One feasible set of solutions to help empower teachers would be for teacher education programs to integrate the aforementioned clinical experiences and induction concept into a five-year, comprehensive program. Students with a 2.7 overall grade point average would be permitted to apply for admittance at the end of their freshman year. The sophomore curriculum might include an introductory education course (which could even be taken during the second semester of the freshman year), an introductory foundations course, an introduction to educational psychology, major and minor course work, tutorials, and several hours of clinical observations. The junior year could include a course in advanced educational psychology, methods courses, major and minor emphases, simulations and micro teaching experiences, and more classroom observation. The simulations and microteaching experiences would be organized around an actual unit and would involve three or four weeks of actual classroom teaching. Some of these would be videotaped to enter into the student's portfolio and would also be helpful in documenting the student's performance for evaluation, but - even more importantly - would serve the student for purposes of self-criticism to improve interaction skills and abilities. During the senior year, students would finish requirements for majors, minors, and methods. In addition, students would take a course in educational research in the first semester followed by a practicum and seminar where research is conducted and presented during the second semester. An integral part of the senior year would be teaching two units for any two classes which the student plans to teach during the fifth, professional year as part of the associate teaching experience. This component would not exceed eight weeks for either subject or class to be taught.

The fifth, or professional, year would combine an entire semester of student teaching (excluding final week of exams) with course work, giving the student a total of twelve graduate hours. The graduate courses would include educational law, foundations of education, curriculum and instruction, and a course in the major or minor field of study. In addition, the teacher induction component discussed above would be implemented. This would include one free graduate course to be taken during the first two years after completion of the professional program, bringing each student's total number of graduate hours to fifteen, thus insuring the pay scale of a Bachelor's plus fifteen hours. This would translate into higher wages almost immediately. With proper planning the student would be able to achieve the Master's degree within an additional three years of course work or less, insuring another major pay-scale increment in a relatively short period of time. This would also increase the professional status of the individual upon completion of the graduate degree.

Increasing the relative power and status of teachers, their knowledge bases, and their roles in decision making can allow institutions of teacher education to make vital contributions to the further professionalization and empowerment of America's future teachers. This proposal has been partially based on suggestions made by the Carnegie Report and the Holmes Group. This is especially true with regard to content, standards and expectations, time in preparation, teaching methods, and the structure of the total experience. This system could funnel into national or regional certification and licensing. But this would still only solve part of the problem of empowerment.

Most of the reform groups and their reports fail to clearly define professionalism. Without clearly understanding what the teaching profession is, it becomes difficult to identify the relationships that can lead to constructive change. Therefore, efforts to empower could become futile without totally understanding the goals, activities, and relationships found in professionalization processes. What common elements from law, medicine, or any other professions can be found? Which objectives must be accomplished by each of the professions? Even with this knowledge would we better understand empowerment? Soder suggests that:

> There have been those who claim to have discerned in certain professions, chiefly medicine and law, such immutable and presumably edifying traits as altruism, a spirit of public service, and a code of ethics. More recently, some sociologists have focused on professionalization as an effective, though not particularly praiseworthy means of establishing and maintaining hegemony and occupational control.[7]

Determined to find out what characteristics were common to professionals, a research team began a study of professional education. Based on questionnaires and interviews, the team found fifteen commonalities:

1) environmental intrusion (open systems interacting with other open systems often battling them for control);
2) university affiliation;
3) accreditation (insuring appropriate standards);
4) recruitment and selection of trainers (tend to come from promising graduate students rather than practitioners);
5) reward structure for trainers (promotion and tenure depend almost exclusively on research);
6) recruitment and selection of trainers (the types of people recruited and selected have a direct bearing on the future of the profession);
7) socialization of trainees (the novice is supposed to display a certain amount of diligence and the right mixture of assertiveness and docility, to accept the basic values and assumptions of the professional subculture, and to master the rudiments of the professional vocabulary);
8) weeding out unqualified trainees (failure to meet grade point averages, pass exit tests, inability to perform under observation, etc.);
9) licensing of qualified trainees (although the power of licensing boards to control training programs is usually not formal, their influence is often considerable);
10) evaluation of outcomes (long-range evaluations are rare after initial placement);
11) continuing education (colleges, in-service workshops, correspondence course);
12) research and development (this function is often separate from or not integrated with the training program);
13) organization of knowledge (Liberal Arts, theoretical professional knowledge, applied professional knowledge, followed by internship or practice);

14) specialization (should a training program deal primarily with imparting general skills and knowledge commonly needed, or should it impart skills and knowledge to the specialties);
15) tension among actors (between academicians, between academicians and clinicians, between trainers and practitioners, between training programs, accrediting bodies, and licensing agencies, between training faculty and school employers).[8]

One is left with the impression of power struggles for control of intellectual tools and methods. Understanding these realities is vital to making the kinds of reforms that will genuinely empower teachers.

There is another key to the process of empowering teachers: principals must also develop skills that will help empower their teachers. Power relationships exist in all institutional settings. Therefore, the various institutional actors must share power. Stimson and Appelbaum suggest that:

> Power sharing encourages people at all levels of the organization to be involved in decision making without feeling manipulated. Such involvement engenders increased commitment to the organization, along with greater self-respect on the part of the subordinate. When teachers are involved in those decisions that affect them, they are likely to be more satisfied with their job situations and with their principals.[9]

Teachers who are satisfied have a better chance to empower themselves. Research has indicated that "satisfied teachers believe that their principals care about their opinions and respond to their concerns. Principals who took the time to build coalitions--to plant ideas with key teachers and then slowly build support - were among the most effective in influencing change in their schools."[10] This indicates that principals and graduate programs in educational administration can also contribute to teacher empowerment.

Teachers lack decision making opportunities which principals have. If principals become trained in specific uses of power they may help teachers become empowered. "Researchers should also study the point at which principals consider themselves empowered and are willing to share their power. If principals don't feel as if they, themselves, have much control within the organization, how can they hope to empower their subordinates?"[11] Stimson and Appelbaum have suggested that:

> The proper exercise of personal power can lead to higher levels of teacher satisfaction. Power sharing, through collaboration and participative decision making, can give teachers a sense of ownership and enhance their self-esteem.[12]

There seems to be a much greater likelihood of teacher empowerment if the principal understands how to share power. The graduate and undergraduate schools of education are in an instrumental position to present the knowledge and skills necessary to the effective uses of power.

It is still necessary, however, to draw upon classroom teachers and their talents and creativity. Greater decision making power in itself is not enough. Teachers will have to learn to transfer greater decision making power into improved classroom functioning and

interrelatedness, avoid potential negative consequences and side effects associated with reform, and overcome differential approaches to curriculum and instruction. The work place will still need to be made less bureaucratic and more democratic. Teacher isolation will have to be replaced with teacher interaction. Administrative interference must be replaced with cooperation.

Ways to allow the community of teachers to watch and reflect upon each other's work will enhance cooperation and the sharing of ideas. Practitioners need to reflect with critical awareness on collective goals. This could be partially achieved through shared planning periods. Quality in-service education helps them keep informed on curriculum innovations that may improve learning processes. They can be paid to spend time in intensive summer workshops which can then be reinforced with activities during the school year. Conferences, banquets, field trips, and helping to set these agendas can also contribute to increased self-respect, knowledge, and improved decision making. Finally, interdisciplinary, team teaching can also have positive effects for team strategies in various shared activities.

In the final analysis, even though teacher education can help strengthen the potential for teacher empowerment, teachers in local districts will have to take 'the bull by the horns.' Teachers in Miami and Rochester have done just that. Take, for instance, the example of Rochester, New York. The 1987 teachers' contract had four stages of development to provide "lead" teachers: interns (new teachers), residents (provisional certification), professionals (permanent certification), and lead teachers who had at least ten years of experience, worked ten percent more time as mentors, planners, evaluators, and other roles, and earned $70,000 per year. They are selected by teams of four teachers and three administrators.[13]

Faculty committees determine teaching assignments and transfers based on problems and programs in the schools. Teachers are assigned according to need rather than seniority. Therefore, some of the best teachers are teaching the lowest-achieving students. Adam Urbanski, Rochester Teachers Association President, states that:

> It makes sense to match the most challenging students with the most experienced, expert practitioners. Certainly success with these students shouldn't be expected of first-year teachers, who have enough to do just to learn the job. Rookie teachers taking on the toughest assignments would be tantamount in the medical profession to interns performing open-heart surgery while master surgeons treat skin abrasions.[14]

In return for the increased salaries and decision making capabilities, teachers are held much more accountable for achievement and attendance. One big help, however, has been transforming the magnet-school program into one of schools of choice where each and every school offers special learning opportunities based on the unique contributions made by the teachers.

In order to improve the mediocrity infecting our schools, the institutions of teacher education need to reform their programs. Changing students depends a great deal on changing teachers. But in order for empowerment to become a reality, innovative programs like that of Rochester, New York will have to be implemented. Democracy at work can help reform the schools themselves. Teachers in the classrooms will have to initiate new structures of leadership and decision making. But in the long run, it is the schools of teacher education that should help instill democratic virtues, ideas, and patterns

of action that can make these changes lasting and, in turn, help teachers to transmit these values to the youth of this country. This will be best achieved by focusing on the teacher intern program and the graduate schools of educational administration for teachers and administrators will have to share power before teacher empowerment can become a reality.

Endnotes

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Throwing a Little Acid on the Teaching Profession

by Joseph P. McDonald
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"Democracy and education," John Dewey's key phrase, has become encrusted, Joseph Featherstone claimed recently - presumably from too much breathing on it and not enough real handling. It needs dipping in acid, he said.[1] So too does the term, "teacher empowerment," I think, as well as some related ones like "professionalization," and "the knowledge base for teaching."

So these will be acidic remarks, though not malevolent ones. I am, by and large, in favor of professionalization. I certainly am in favor of teacher empowerment. I even think teaching has a knowledge base - though I think it is not the kind associated with masonry - where a base is a foundational layer; but rather the kind associated with chemistry - where a base combines with acid to form a salt. The difference is between conceiving the knowledge base for teaching as something teachers build a practice upon; and conceiving it, on the other hand, as a key ingredient among others in the continuous transformations of their practice.

My first bit of acid comes by way of the sociologist Emile Durkheim, who claimed that one of the most powerful and comprehensive distinctions humans make among ideas and things is between what we call sacred and what we call profane. A religious distinction, it nonetheless originates, he said, as a social construction, the product of powerful social forces.[2]

This happens in our field. Powerful social forces determine our sacred terms, and seal them off from profane company. Currently, for example, a sacred term is profession, and it has largely been sealed off from contact with a profane counterpart, craft. This has happened under the influence of social forces that are also political and epistemological.

It happens also that the term, knowledge base for teaching, is associated largely with knowledge validated by social science. That is because this is the sacred knowledge of our field, fitting for the professional. It is laid on beginners as if with a mason's trowel, then sealed to become the "foundation" of their practice. Other layers of knowledge follow, of course, but they are typically - though implicitly - presumed not to penetrate the foundational layer. Among these subsequent layers of knowledge are the teacher's sense of her subject; a knowledge of how her school really works, apart from policy models of how the standardized school works; knowledge of actual kids, rather than of psychologists' models of kids; intuition-laced craft knowledge of how to plan, move, talk, respond in actual classrooms; knowledge of what Margret Buchmann calls the folkways of teaching; and so on.[3] All of these are profane in comparison to the sacred foundation because they are all messy - full of contradiction, prejudice, uncertainty, ambivalence. On the other hand, we might take notice that practice itself is messy too. Donald Schon calls it, in an aptly profane metaphor, the "swampy ground of practice."[4]

A less sacred knowledge base - one perceived as chemical rather than masonic, would operate in this swamp from the beginning. That is what chemistry is about: better living from muck. Operating under the influence of a chemical metaphor might entail setting before beginning teachers, as before all teachers throughout their careers, and before all associated with teaching including researchers and policy people, an assumption that the triple-headed problem of teaching can never be cleanly solved. The problem of what to teach, of how to teach it, and of how to judge whether it has been learned is

inevitably a messy problem, a profane problem. Like many chemical compounds, the solutions we continually devise for it are exceedingly unstable over time and across conditions. Yet solving it continually and provisionally is the key work of teaching, both at school and at the university. The secret we seem especially to want to insulate schoolteachers from, but which they especially ought to know, is that knowledge is not solid like a wall, but volatile like some chemical compounds, and that this is true not only of knowledge in the fields we teach but also of knowledge of teaching itself.

It seems, however, that this chemical view of the knowledge base for teaching threatens many interests. Because it seems to debase teachers' knowledge, it seems as well to diminish the social status of teachers, seems to entail a slipping back from what we think we almost have - a bonafide teaching profession at last. Here we glimpse the social forces at work that Durkheim predicted: we want teachers to be like doctors and lawyers; not plumbers, not hairdressers.

To understand these social forces, it helps to consider how our efforts to strive for professionalism infect our notion of what it means to have power, our notion of what power is. The 1986 report of the Carnegie Task Force On Teaching, hailed as the key document of the second wave of 1980's school reform - the wave that linked reform to teacher professionalism and teacher empowerment - includes a brief utopian fiction set in a poor midwestern city's high school in the year 2000.[5] This is a high school where teachers have been empowered, and one consequence is that it really works. Ironically, it works too well, impossibly well. It works like the ideas touted in the Department of Education bulletin, What Works, work - too cleanly, too rationally, too free of the muck of the swamp.[6]

The effect of such stories on our collective policy imagination is to establish a concept of teacher empowerment that is quite bereft of teacherly sense. It is to suffer the imposition of an alien frame of reference unsuitable to the real life of teaching. So what seemed a new era becomes merely a new guise for the continued dominance of old social forces. Teachers lose out even while they seem to win, just as nurses seem to be losing out while winning their struggle for professionalization. Nel Noddings tells us that nursing may have accepted a devil's bargain in surrendering its caring function, its intimacy with patients, in exchange for enhanced professional status and technological expertise.[7] The analogy between nursing and teaching is very important to bear in mind because both fields are dominated by women, and because both fields have been traditionally thought to involve "women's work," which is to say work that hinges on empathy, intimacy, and caring, and work that is judged too soft, too emotional, too messy to deserve the high status accorded the work of the male-dominated professions.

For several years I have been closely studying the dynamics of teacher empowerment in an urban high school. One of my findings is that power, and some things associated with power, like decision making, policy, conflict, and conflict resolution, do not necessarily look the same in a teacher-run school as they do in a traditional school. How could we expect otherwise? We know from close looks at teaching itself, like Magdalene Lampert's essay, "How Do Teachers Manage to Teach," that managing to teach is not like managing a corporation, that in terms associated with the latter, managing to teach looks like the opposite of managing well, that teachers teaching well may from a traditional management perspective look indecisive, irresolute, weak.[8]

I would like to suggest, for the sake of real teacher empowerment rather than make-believe empowerment, that we strive to neutralize the tension between sacred and profane conceptions of teaching by acknowledging openly that teaching not only has some things in common with doctoring and lawyering, but also with nursing, mothering, gardening,

plumbing, housekeeping, and hairdressing. I am aware of the short-term cost of such an acknowledgement, of the potential loss of social status. I understand why teacher unions, for example, would find this hard to take. On the other hand, they, and all of us in the field, must take a longer view. We must acquire the imaginative boldness of those teacher ancestors of ours who founded the first teacher unions. Maggie Haley, for example, fiery guiding light of the Chicago Teachers Federation - the very first teacher's union - deliberately and explicitly fostered in her membership an identification with working people. She did so for two reasons that in my view continue to be compelling today: first, because the alternative may not be prestigious professional status, but continuation of a sexist servanthood; and, secondly, because teachers risk alienating themselves otherwise from the working people whose kids they teach - particularly in the public schools of cities like Chicago.

Haley's autobiography, appropriately called Battleground, collected dust for thirty years before it was finally published some six years ago.[9] Now it deserves a wide readership. So does the account of his teaching by a contemporary hero of teaching, Eliot Wigginton's Sometimes A Shining Moment.[10] Like Haley, Wigginton reconceptualizes teacher empowerment. His power as a teacher still derives from his knowledge, as he sees it, but only marginally from the knowledge he acquired in his teacher preparation program at Cornell or in his English courses there. Mostly, it comes instead from the knowledge he has discovered among the people of the Georgia hills whose children he teaches, from the children themselves whose lives and learning he reads very closely, and from himself in reflecting continually on the messiness of his work. The epigraph of Shining Moment is a quotation from Aunt Addie Norton. "I tell you one thing," she says, "if you learn it by yourself, if you have to get down and dig for it, it never leaves you. It stays there as long as you live because you had to dig it out of the mud before you learned what it was."

These remarks end with what may seem antique talk of heroes, because to some extent I think it is an antique perspective we most need to guide us through the reforms of the next few years - if they are to be truly reformative. Along with Joseph Featherstone, I think we need democracy and education dipped in acid. We need a notion of school rooted in community, the alienation of the modern school burned off by the acid. We need a notion of teaching with its caring function intact and its messiness acknowledged and embraced; and with alien ideas of knowledge and power stripped away by the acid.

Notes

(1) Joseph Featherstone, address to National Conference on Teacher Networks, Education Development Corporation, Washington, D.C., December 2, 1989.

(2) Emile Durkheim, Elementary Forms of the Religious Life, (1912).

(3) Margret Buchmann, "Teaching Knowledge: The Lights That Teachers Live By," National Center for Research on Teacher Education, Michigan State University, March 1987.

(4) Donald A. Schon, Educating the Reflective Practitioner. (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1987).

(5) A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century (New York: Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, Carnegie Corporation, 1986.

(6) What Works: Research about Teaching and Learning (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, 1986).

(7) Nel Noddings, presentation at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, 1989.

(8) Magdalene Lampert, "How Do Teachers Manage to Teach?" Harvard Educational Review,. 55 (1985), 178-194.

(9) Robert L. Reid (ed.), Battleground: The Autobiography of Margaret A. Haley, (Urbana: Univ. of Illinois Press, 1983).

(10) Eliot Wigginton, Sometimes A Shining Moment: The Foxfire Experience (Garden City, NY: Doubleday, 1986).

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EMPOWERMENT FOR TEACHERS IN MULTICULTURAL SCHOOLS: INVITING THE TEACHING-LEARNING EXCHANGE

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The purpose of our presentation is to describe facets of the teacher education program at Alverno College that we believe contribute to teacher empowerment, focusing specifically on the use of multicultural education as an empowerment tool for urban educators. We will lay out some aspects of the development of urban teachers, describe the teaching/learning and assessment processes that develop teachers, and share our particular design for such a program.

Development of Urban Teachers

The realities of urban teaching require that the preparation of those teachers include explicit attention to several areas: 1) the diversity of learners and how factors such as race, culture, gender, social class, family and demographics affect learning; 2) learning styles and types of intelligence; 3) values and learning; 4) motivation and discipline; and 5) self-concept and achievement. Information about these areas needs to be integrated with content, methodology and experiences in a manner that allows pre-service teachers to develop appropriate dispositions toward urban children and their needs. Further, knowledge and dispositions need to translate into beneficial actions in the classroom - actions that lead to academic success and positive self-concepts for students and feelings of efficacy for teachers.

Processes That Develop Teachers

The teaching/learning and assessment modes necessary for urban education integrate the importance of knowing and doing, recognizing that "real learning comes in the doing." This is a break with past practice. Traditionally, education students learned about teaching by hearing and reading about it, having a very limited and late exposure to the actual learning environment and students. They were tested primarily in the area of recall of information, with little or no focus on their attitudes or dispositions. Judgments about actions tended to be disproportionately weighted towards content and efficiency, giving scarce attention to affect and interaction.

As education becomes more student-centered, teacher education must require more active learning, more involvement with the application of information in the classroom. Providing opportunities to practice can allow the teachers-to-be to test their assumptions or the theories they are studying, sparking questions and solidifying understanding. Equally important are opportunities to reflect on practice, trying out different perspectives or frames for ideas. Pre-service teachers need to be able to reflect on both what they know and what they do; to consciously expand their frame of reference to include the perspectives of their students; to interact respectfully and optimistically with students whose cultures are substantially different from their own; to question their own values, ideas and assumptions to explode myths and stereotypes; and to put into practice the theory and research supporting effective educational practice.

Such an integrated approach to knowledge, dispositions, and actions requires a different kind of measurement of progress. The word "testing" conjures up images of

true/false and "fill in the blank" questions focused on passive learning. The faculty at Alverno (1985) has chosen to use the term "assessment," drawing on its root meaning ("to sit down beside") to convey the importance of doing something "with" rather than "to" someone. Like many of our colleagues across the country, we are trying to develop measures that integrate knowing and doing, that tap our students' development of action and disposition, as well as knowledge. These measures include observations of students' interaction at the school site, simulations of activities of teachers, analytical discussions of case studies, and reflective writing.

Alverno's Design for Teacher Preparation

Figure 1 is an outline of courses and experiences in the teacher education programs at Alverno College. A number of "threads" can be followed through the program; we will focus on those that most clearly address the needs of the urban teacher.

The program starts with ED 116, "Human Relations Workshop," taken in the student's second semester. It is their first opportunity to do reflecting and framing around educational and cultural issues. The eight-week course represents the foundation upon which we build the multicultural focus within the program. Students hear presentations and discuss such concepts as frame of reference, high and low context cultures, language, family, and significant values, with a special emphasis on the experience of minority cultures in relationship to those concepts. One of the benefits of the course is that we are able to start a dialogue with students on sensitive issues and get them to respond honestly. In weekly journal writing, students are asked to summarize the ideas they have heard and then to reflect their own, personal response. In these writings, read and responded to by a faculty member, students may reveal sophistication or naivete, openness or hostility; whatever each student's "starting point" in terms of dispositions we gain a valuable insight into her readiness to interact effectively with urban students.

The concepts and issues introduced in ED 116 are carried through the curriculum, so that students have the opportunity to move from their initial positions, if appropriate, and to deepen their understanding and awareness of these concepts and issues. The two "principles of teaching" or general methods courses, focused on elementary or secondary education, incorporate a self-concept approach to teaching and learning. Developed by Purkey and Novak (1984) in Inviting School Success, this framework allows students to investigate "inviting" and "disinviting" behaviors and comments from both personal and professional standpoints. Through examining the inviting process, the levels of functioning involved, and the types of relationships that teachers develop with their students, the courses lead them to choose a stance of optimism and respect over one of pessimism and contempt.

The invitational framework is applied in the presentation and discussion of topics like planning, lesson design, classroom management, motivation, teacher expectations, and assessment of student learning. Faculty discuss their own teaching processes with students, to make the application of the framework explicit. At the same time, the teachers-to-be have the opportunity to test out their understanding in their own interaction with students in their first field experience placement, which is concurrent with these courses. In their two to three hours a week on-site, they work with small groups of learners. They complete weekly journal entries that call upon them to reflect on their experiences.

Another framework that promotes the development of broadened frames of reference is introduced to students in PCM 108, "Practical Applications of Language Analysis." In this foundation course for the reading/language arts requirement, students

develop an awareness of the symbolic process and the arbitrary nature of language. They explore the ways in which language can be used to clarify or distort meanings, to inspire to action, and to manipulate feelings. They study dialects and come to understand the difference between talking about "correct English" and "standard English." They become conscious of the need for generalization and the danger of stereotyping. This course also includes a specific focus on the development of critical thinking and the building of strategies for future elementary and secondary teachers to integrate thinking across the curriculum.

In the four semesters in which students are involved in field experiences prior to student teaching, they also take the course work in subject matter areas and the specific methods courses required in their programs. Each of their field experiences has a particular focus, while also increasing the expectations of the responsibility that the student will assume at her site. By the third and fourth field, for example, faculty expect the students to take responsibility for whole class lessons at least two or three times in the semester. In each of the fieldwork semesters, students are asked to reflect on all of their courses to make relationships between what they are studying and the elements of human relations and multicultural education first introduced in ED 116.

Midway through the fieldwork sequence, faculty conduct an interview with each education student. Lasting about an hour, this one-on-one interaction gives the student a chance to talk about her development, through the use of structured, open-ended questions. The faculty use the interview as an opportunity to get to know students in a more personal way, but it is also a useful screening device. For example, if a student indicates in the interview a lack of understanding of developmental psychology leading to seriously inappropriate expectations of children, the faculty would provide remediation or suggest career counseling. Similarly, indications of serious discomfort in dealing with minority students or special education students would be a red flag for the faculty.

The final field experience pulls together a number of aspects of multicultural education. Because Milwaukee is blessed with a diverse population, each student can be placed in a multicultural school setting and have the opportunity to draw together in that setting her understanding of frameworks related to teaching and learning. Students' reflection is guided to assist them to address the particular needs of the multicultural setting.

In all of the fields, faculty visit students at their placements and observe their interaction with students. A criteria checklist identifies the areas that students must demonstrate; faculty look at student behavior for evidence of appropriate action and make inferences about knowledge and dispositions on the basis of those actions.

Students have two nine-week placements in their full semester of student teaching. Elementary students have a primary and an intermediate placement, while secondary have a middle and a high school placement. Faculty supervisors and cooperating teachers in the schools use carefully crafted criteria to guide teachers-to-be in the integration of their knowing and doing in the school setting.

The capstone course for the education student is ED 412, "Philosophy of Education." Instead of having a foundations course at the beginning of their programs, we've placed this course after student teaching, as a way to provide significant reflection on the experience. Here students formulate their personal philosophy of education, after being exposed to the students, environment, and the realities of teaching in an urban setting today.

The first eight weeks of the course deals with children at risk, pointing out that most children in public school today are at risk for one reason or another. The statistics are overwhelming, even depressing, but we add the positive message, so wonderfully portrayed in the NBC special "A+ for Kids," that teachers can make a difference if they believe they can and choose to do so. Many people from our community echo this message as they share how they are reaching the at risk population in their various fields. In addition to writing a paper on their philosophy of education, students are asked to design programs to address a particular segment of the at risk population. They do site visits and collect data to prepare and present these projects to the class. It is amazing to see how much of what they learned during different phases of their teacher education program gets incorporated into these projects.

Through the four or more years of the process of the program, the faculty's experience is that many students start out being frustrated, facing their own attitudes perhaps for the first time, seeing the world as much larger than they realized. However, they evidence a growing self-confidence and an ability to adapt as they move through the program, a result of both their own ongoing self-reflection and the faculty's guidance and feedback. We watch them broaden their frames of reference and begin to accept, not just tolerate, other perspectives. Finally, we see in them a growing commitment to the development of learners and, specifically, to the needs of the urban child.

We as faculty also find ourselves being changed in the process. As we continue to talk to each other about the students, the program and its materials, ideas, and problems, we collaboratively design and redesign the types of courses and assessments that we hope will prepare our students to take ownership of the role of teacher as <u>one who can make a difference</u>.

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Figure 1: Model of the development of multicultural components of the Alverno College teacher education program

1st semester General education requirements

2nd semester ED 116 Human Relations Workshop
General education requirements

3rd semester ED 221 Principles of Instruction
ED 356
ED 210 lst field experience
Content area course work

4th semester PCM 108 Language/Critical Thinking
ED 215 2nd field experience
Content area course work

5th semester ED 310 3rd field experience
Methods courses
Content area course work

6th semester ED 315 4th field experience
Methods courses
Content area course work

7th semester Student teaching

8th semester ED 412 Philosophy of Education
Content area course work

PARADOX AND PARADIGM:

UNIVERSITY LEADERSHIP AND TEACHER EMPOWERMENT

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In every one of the books on the university administrator's "must read" list, the absolute necessity of "vision" for university leaders is asserted. All administrators/leaders must have "a vision." Being dynamic and/or charismatic is certainly beneficial but "having vision" is essential. You may have noticed that I have just engaged in some rather loose linguistic usage. As a matter of fact, you may notice that throughout this entire paper but in this initial instance it was intentional. It should have been apparent that in one of the above sentences, it was asserted that leaders must "have vision" and in another sentence immediately following, it was asserted that leaders must have "a vision." Quite obviously, "having vision" and having "a vision" mean significantly different things. My purpose in slipping from the one usage to the other is to do what practically all the authors who write about leadership do. Hoping, therefore, to make the point that asserting "leaders must have visions" and/or "leaders must have a vision" is not really telling us much about the "vision" leaders must have, and consequently, not telling us anything about leadership. It seems to me that much, if not all, is contingent upon the nature of the visions - "with visions of sugar plums dancing in my head" doesn't seem to me to be what was meant by the authors but I can't really find any sound rationale in the literature to conclusively reject such a vision as what the authors assert as necessary for leadership.

George Keller's Academic Strategy: The Management Revolution in Higher Education[1] is, perhaps, an exception to the above argument. Professor Keller agrees with the Cohen and March description of the university in Leadership and Ambiguity[2] as an organized anarchy but argues that it is better to change the conditions that constitute an organized anarchy than to adjust one's decision making style to fit those conditions. In other words, if the university is an organization with unclear and unagreed upon objectives, then it is not a part of leadership to adjust one's style accordingly but to "lead" the polity towards an acceptance of clear and agreed upon objectives and then to "lead" the polity toward the adoption of policies that would logically, ethically and effectively "lead" toward the attainment of these goals. Keller takes these two conditions of leadership and labels them as strategic planning and policy-making. In support of Keller's emphasis on strategic planning, Daniel Bell in The Reforming of General Education reminds us that "this is an era in which society has become 'future-oriented' in all its dimensions. A government has to anticipate future problems, an enterprise has to plan for future market needs, an individual has to think of long-range career choices. A future-oriented society necessarily commits itself more and more to the idea of planning."[3] And, the university is certainly no exception to this necessity. No one would deny, that design is preferred over drift, that thought is preferred over chance and that consideration for the future is preferred over contempt or complicity about the past. Having a design in mind, thinking about a plan and considering the future is probably what the authors of books on leadership mean when they allude to "having vision." It is analogous to what Sidney Parnes, the Director of the University at Buffalo's Center for Creative Problem Solving, calls "visioneering," i.e., seeing the present in a larger context by paying particular attention to the future so as to imagine and plan for the largest conceivable context.

For George Keller, this is what he calls strategy. It involves deliberating about the mission of the university and developing institutional objectives; then, deliberating about

institutional objectives and developing college objectives; then, deliberating about college objectives and developing divisional objectives; then, deliberating about divisional objectives and developing departmental objectives; then, deliberating about departmental objectives and developing programmatic objectives; then, deliberating about programmatic objectives and developing course objectives; then, deliberating about course objectives and developing student outcomes; and, finally evaluating the student outcomes to determine if the institutional objectives have been met and, therefore, that the university's mission is fulfilled. This account is, undoubtedly, a helpful view - certainly there needs to be a logical link between objectives and outcomes. And, surely, for this logical connection to be efficacious, the links must begin with the institutional mission and conclude with student outcomes. Not only is this view helpful, it is also an accurate view. But, it is hardly representative of "having vision" - it is more like "half having vision" or "having half a vision."

Let me borrow an idea from Tom Beauchamp's Philosophical Ethics to make this last point a little more substantively. According to Professor Beauchamp, there are different levels of generality involved in decision making and developing objectives. Judgments about what ought to be done can be viewed as rationally defensible or justifiable by appeal to rules, which in turn are defended and justified by appeal to principles, which in turn are defended and justified by appeal to ethical theories.[4] Please note that by saying that a plan is rationally defensible or justifiable occurs only if there is a successful appeal to a standard that is independent of the previous belief - this standard is necessary in order to validate the "correctness" of that which is claimed to be "correct." Given this argument, it seems clear that Keller does not appeal to the largest level of generality for his "strategic planning" to satisfy the criterion of "having vision" for leadership. In order to "have vision," it seems to me that the university administrator/leader must have something similar to what is generally referred to as a "Weltanschauung," i.e., a general view of the universe and man's relation to it which would affect the practical attitudes and beliefs of its adherents. More specifically, what is needed in higher education is more like a "University Weltanschauung" than a "universal" one. Where Keller's view started with the university mission and the devised strategic plans to meet that mission, the University Weltanschauung (our view of having vision) must appeal to a larger level of generality. It seems that Keller started in the middle of the "vision" (half a vision) which would inevitably make a muddle of the University Weltanschauung. To "meddle" in the "middle" of this "muddle" will "lead" to confusion but won't constitute leadership.

Implicit in this necessary criterion for leadership is an epistemological claim - the leader knows! Put into the context of the university, the university leader knows the University Weltanschauung. However, regardless of the university's governance structure, the university is, in essence, its faculty. And, given the contemporary university faculty with all of its many disciplinary specializations and its multiple responsibilities, it needs as never before to feel a part of the Weltanschauung and to feel that the university knows where it is going and why; and, also why it is better to be going there than to be going somewhere else. That sense of direction and purpose must come from academic administrators who - if they do not "know" why or where they are going themselves - can never get others "to see the point of" their "lead." Wilfred Scheed, in remarks delivered at South Hampton College of Long Island University and reprinted in the New York Times in June, 1980, addressed this problem with this point "the professional world becomes a kind of Franz Kafka mansion where the rooms get smaller and grayer the further up the stairs you go, and this is known as promotion." Scheed sincerely believes that university administrators have abandoned the big search for the intensely alive intellectual experiences in developing a "University Weltanschauung" for the dim little remote pleasures of efficiently run offices what Patricia

Plante in the Art of Decision Making calls the "administrivia of everydayness."[5] Even George Keller recognized this problem when he distinguished between administration and management. Accordingly, administrations see that things are done right while management sees that the right things are done. Keller states "while administration seeks efficiency in the present structure, management strives for effectiveness through an improved structure."[6] If, however, university administrators, now better called managers, are to be leaders, they must be sure that their "minds match their office - with each promotion, they should become better and better furnished."[7]

Ergo, university managers/leaders must have as their primary responsibility the continual intellectual cultivation of their own life so as to fulfill their enthusiasm for, commitment to, and understanding of the university's central connection: that an intellectually rich life is to be preferred to an intellectually impoverished one. This condition of leadership cannot be achieved if the administrator/manager is intellectually bankrupt. The basis of this argument was developed a generation ago by Richard Peters (in Authority, Responsibility and Education[8] and sophisticated significantly two decades ago in his Ethics and Education[9]) for us now to recognize the conceptual differences between being "an" authority and being "in" authority. A university administrator/ manager is "in" authority by virtue of his/her position. There is nothing implicit in the position to guarantee that s/he is "an" authority, i.e., one who attains his/her authority not by virtue of his/her position but by virtue of his/her knowledge. It, therefore, is very difficult for someone who is "in" a position of authority to be a "leader" because people usually do not follow anyone of whom they are inherently suspicious. Contrast this suspect condition with the inherent respect that naturally follows from being "an" authority. For instance, if I want to know more about X and Professor Chips is "an" authority on X, then I, quite naturally, go to Professor Chips to get to know about X or get to know more about X, i.e., I respect Professor Chip's knowledge of X, therefore, I follow Professor Chip's instructions, I follow Professor Chip's suggestions and I follow Professor Chip's advice because Professor Chips knows X and I want to know X.

Now, since it is not natural to follow those of whom you are even the least bit suspicious, those persons sitting simply "in" positions of authority never become leaders simply because of their position although many may feel it to be necessary to follow them. "Following" is done for all kinds of reasons, e.g., bureaucratic design in an organization, minority position in a democracy, economic necessity in an enterprise or psychological compulsion in any coercive environment. But leadership is contingent upon only one kind of "following" - that which is the result of the respect of the follower for the leader's knowledge and the recognition of the follower that s/he can best get to where s/he wants to be by following this "an" authority. Please take note at this point in the argument that being "in" authority and being "an" authority - although not jointly exhaustive - are certainly not mutually exclusive. The argument is quite simple and straightforward--to be a leader one must be "an" authority.

Part of the significance of the "an" authority condition of "leadership" is the emphasis that it places on the nature of the "followship". If, for example, to be "an" authority implies respect of another group of people because of the knowledge-base of the "an" authority, then it follows that this other group, i.e., followers, must know much about how much the "an" authority really knows. In other words, (1) there must be some understanding on the part of the followers as to the intentions of the "an" authority/leader; and (2) there must be some agreement on the part of the followers with the intended destination objective or goal of the "an" authority/leader, and (3) there must be a voluntary rational decision on the part of the followers that this particular person is the most able person to "lead" them to this mutually agreed upon destination, objective or goal. Now,

each of these conditions of "followship" needs, admittedly, to be discussed separately, and in deeper detail, particularly in relationship to each one's significance for the administrator/manager/leader's role in a university context.

Let us begin with the initial claim that since leadership implies being "an" authority and being "an" authority implies having respect of those over whom one has authority, then those who respect, i.e., the followers, must have some understanding of the administrator/manager/leader's intention. The obvious reason for this condition is to rule from the realm of possibility any appeal to force, coercion, threat, indoctrination or conditioning as indicative of leadership. But the less obvious reason is to make the claim that leadership involves an epistemological relationship with the leader's followers. The nature of this relationship can best be captured by what Jane R. Martin described as Verstehen in Explaining, Understanding and Teaching when she discussed the concept of understanding. Accordingly, "to understand human beings and their actions we must put ourselves in their position, for example, to think their thoughts, and feel their feelings, we are able to do this because we too are human, that is to say we understand others on an analogy with ourselves."[10] Understanding is always a context-bound affair for there is always someone who must do the understanding. Also, understanding is something one must do for one's self, i.e., others can point things out for you, give you relevant information, enlarge your conceptual repertoire and explain their position (all of which are incumbent upon the leader to do) but in the final analysis you have to come through and do the understanding for yourself. Surely the explainee, unlike the explainer, can be passive throughout this entire encounter. But this is saying no more than that there can be explaining without understanding even though there cannot be any "leading" without understanding.

What is necessary for leadership, therefore, is a special kind of explaining - one that rests on a version of the Verstehen theory. According to the Verstehen theory, one who explains something to someone must take the explainee's point of view into consideration (and vice versa). To take someone's point of view into account involves having knowledge and basing one's decisions or actions, in part, at least on that knowledge. To be sure, one way to get this knowledge is to put oneself in the other's position but this does not guarantee that the knowledge will be gotten or that if it is, it will be taken into account. Therefore, leadership cannot be concerned solely with understanding. Granted that one job of leadership is to get people to understand the policies, plans, promises and perceptions of the administrator/leader, the other is to get the polity to accept and adopt these plans, promises and policies. It seems that in the context of leadership, the doctrine of Verstehen does have logical force. For it does not simply contain methodological or psychological advise that one good/effective way of getting people to follow you is to put yourself in their position. The claim is much stronger: one must put oneself in the other person's position if one is to adapt/adopt his/her position/destination.

It seems that all of the metaphors for administrators/ managers/leaders used by Cohen & March & Keller are clearly inappropriate. Business executives, military commanders, politicians, ministers, foremen and bookkeepers do not really have to put themselves into their employees, soldiers, publics, parishioners, subordinates position nor do they really have to take their (employees, soldiers, et al.) point of view into account. Perhaps they would be better business executives, military commanders, politicians et al., if they did but they don't really have to and, unfortunately, seldom do. This is not the case, however, with the pedagogue. For, according to Jim McClellan in his Philosophy of Education, "teaching" implies these same conditions that I have been arguing are necessary for "leading." Jim alludes to these conditions as "pellucid" and "explains" "pellucidity" this way: "If we follow the ordinary language notion which is what really gets explaining

underway, we see that the point of the teaching activity is not that 'B' (learner) happens to be in a state of want with respect to answers to 'W' but rather than 'B' (learner) wants to know 'W'. From that conditon everything else follows 'B' (learner) wants to know 'W'; 'B' (learner) believes that 'A' (teacher) knows 'W'; if 'A' (teacher) is saying things that seem to answer 'W', 'B' asks 'A' about 'W' and then listens; if what 'A' says does answer 'B's questions about 'W', then the teaching is completed."[11] At this point, in Jim's view, the learning and, in my view, the "following" begins! But, this point requires further explication. Let me take each of Jim's conditions that must be met for teaching, i.e., the conditions of pellucidity, and state each by substituting leader for teacher and follower for learner. Here we go:

1. The learner/follower wants to know W (the way)
2. The learner/follower knows that Professor Chips (the teacher/leader) knows
   a) what the learner/follower must do in order to know W (the way) and
3. The learner/follower believes that Professor Chips (teacher/leader) is explaining "X" to him/her with the intent of helping him/her to come to know W (the way)
4. The learner/follower is paying attention to Professor Chips (teacher/leader) and is interested in what Professor Chips (teacher/leader) is doing
5. The learner/follower believes that Professor Chips (teacher/leader) is engaging in efficacious teaching activities and that Professor Chips (teacher/leader) knows that the learner/follower is interested in what Professor Chips (teacher/leader) is doing; and
6. Professor Chips (teacher/leader) believes that the learner/follower really wants to get to know W (the way) and
7. Professor Chips (teacher/leader) believes that his/her activities are efficacious and will help the learner/follower get to know W (the way)
8. Professor Chips (teacher/leader) engages in those pedagogical activities with the intention of helping the learner/follower to get to know W (the way)

You may have noticed several things in this analysis. Initially, the first four (4) conditions deal specifically with the circumstances surrounding the nature of following in a leadership context and the last four (4) conditions deal specifically with the circumstances surrounding the nature of leading. Both are obvious necessary conditions for teaching/learning and since our substitution of leading/following did not break any of the canons of ordinary language, it seems safe to conclude that the conditions of pellucidity are also necessary for leading. Consequently, given this analogy the best (if not, perhaps, the only) appropriate metaphor for leadership is a pedagogical one, i.e., the leader must be a teacher.

This leaves us with only one remaining point in the argument. Recall, if you will, that "leading" implies not just having vision or knowing where you want to be along with getting your followers to see that vision and wanting to be there too but "leading" also implies knowing the "best" way of getting to where you want to be and knowing why that is the "best" place to be. It follows that the leader needs more than just "vision," the leader now needs a "policy" or if you wish having a policy is part of "having vision." As a matter of reference, Donna Kerr in her Educational Policy: Structure Analysis and Justification addresses this point when she discusses the nature of policy. According to Donna, a policy exists when the following is satisfied "some agents or agency (A) must be obligated to act in accord with some conditional imperative, i.e., do something in particular (W) whenever specified conditions (C) occur, in order to achieve some purpose (P)."[12] Since leaders are designated as policy-makers in higher education, let me take each of Donna's conditions to see if the concept of leadership that has developed in this paper satisfies her conditons of policy-making. Initially, condition (1) asserts that some agents must be responsible for the

development of the policy. When discussing this condition, Donna cites "the need for these 'agents' to be broken into different classifications - she distinguishes among authorizing agents (Board of Trustees), implementing agents (administration) and obligating agents (polity). She then argues that the more agents of different classifications involved in the policy-making,the more effective the policy will probably be."[13] This argument seems plausible simply beause more of the polity will be able to express their points of view and influence the actual policy. Our condition of Verstehen certainly satisfies Donna's criterion and her reason for setting it. In fact, the criterion of Verstehen is even stronger - it insists that the authorizing agents put themselves in the position of the obligating agents and take their point of view as their own prior to making decisions that in any way effect the destiny of other members of the polity.

The second condition for policy is to have some plan to guide action in accordance with certain conditional imperatives. If our previous points are even close to correct, then the leader has a plan - it is his/her University Weltanschauung. The conditional imperatives that are an inherent part of this Weltanschauung are the logical links between any two levels of the plan and/or among all levels of the plan ending at the highest degree of generality, e.g., from an administrative decision to a specific policy statement to an organizational design to an institutional mission to a sociological theory to an anthropological assumption to a certain ontological outlook. When this general plan is analyzed for a specific policy proposal to determine how and when specific conditions occur (Donna's other criterion), the decisions become a simple matter of technical rationality. Also, given the policymaker's commitment to pellucidity as a necessary condition for leadership, this technically rational decision will necessarily be a rationally optimal one.

So far - so good? So, it all sounds like this: A policy is satisfied when some Agent (our "an" authority) must be obligated to act in accord with some conditional imperative (our Verstehen) to do something (our University Weltanschauung) whenever specified conditions occur (our pellucidity) to achieve some purpose (our present problem). Quite obviously, the underlying purpose of any policy is to make some association/institution/organization somewhat systematic. It is to begin with an infinite amount of conflicts of interest from within the association/institution/organization and conclude with a unified concert of action. And, just as following can follow from many different contexts (conditioning, coercion, etc.) but leading is contingent upon a certain kind of following, so is the case with concerts of actions the concert can be contrived, coerced, conditioned or simply conned but within a policy context, the concert is contingent upon "polite" persuasion. Polite is a necessary condition because it is an etymological derivative of policy and constitutes, therefore, an implicit appeal to principle.

The nature of this principle is, on occasion, an inherent condition of the context. The concept of policy implies principle; the context of education, with its foundation based on rationality, implies specific principles, e.g., impartiality, consideration of interests, freedom, respect for persons and probably truth-telling. Each of these must be present in the policy and practiced by the policymaker/leader. Just as the Weltanschauung appeals to more complex levels of generality to justify the less complex, so each of these implicit principles must appeal to a more general and independent principle for justification. Obviously, this process of justification cannot go on forever, for at some point the highest level must be reached - the level of "ultimate" moral principles required for the "correctness" of all other principles. As you all know, this is no small problem and in the educational context - it doesn't get any smaller. However, let me take a small stab - with the recognition that the amount of assertive risk in the stab is inversely related to the size of the stab! Nevertheless, here it goes! I have a sneaky suspicion that the principle that

represents the highest level of generality of appeal is justice. I have no elaborate argument for this suspicion just a simple appeal to ordinary language, i.e., we ask for a "justification" of other principles not for a "freedomization"; nor an "equalitization" nor an "honestification," ad infinitum. Ergo, since we appeal to a "justification" of other principles, can't we assume/conclude that the highest level of appeal for principles is justice? But, that's a topic for another paper at another conference! Or, perhaps the level of generality of such a topic transcends the boundaries of just another paper at another conference and/or, perhaps, the level of sophistication required to deal with this topic transcends the "vision" of this writer. Perhaps, then what we really need is a "leader." Right?

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TEACHER EMPOWERMENT AND ADMINISTRATOR TRAINING: ADVERSARIAL OR COLLEGIAL NOTIONS

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TEACHER EMPOWERMENT AND ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT: ADVERSARIAL OR COLLEGIAL NOTIONS

The current professional literature in the field of teacher education is replete with references to the term "empowerment." National and international conferences, much like this AILACTE National Forum, have focused extensively on the notion of teacher empowerment and the corresponding impact of this movement on the reconfiguration of American public and private schools. Although this movement toward understanding and conceptualizing the holistic nature of teacher empowerment is presently at the forefront of educational thought, it must be noted that this issue is not a neoteric notion. In 1918 Thorstein Veblen clearly spoke of emancipatory action on the part of university faculties when he called for the abolishment of governing boards and presidents that supervise the daily operations of higher education. His work, The Higher Learning in America (1918), was an obvious affront to those who continuously attempted to dominate and control the lives of the professorate. At approximately the same period of time, John Dewey (1916) wrote extensively concerning the notion of democracy as a comprehensive social and educational movement. It is through the early work of Dewey that we encounter the fundamental belief that intelligent social action holds the best promise for a more humane society. As a final antecedent to the present teacher empowerment movement, the work of Susan Isaacs readily comes to mind. In 1924 Isaacs founded the Malting House School in Cambridge, England; it was here that Ms. Isaacs began to create curricular perspectives and educational practices that offered continual choices for the liberation of children and teachers through an expanded decision making model.

As the reader can clearly see, the historical foundation for the basic tenets of teacher empowerment are clearly rooted in the early decades of this century. However, a corresponding embrace for teacher autonomy was not found in the field of educational administration. Within this same time period, administrative authors such as Franklin Bobbitt (1912) were actively espousing the accolades of scientific management as designed by Frederick W. Taylor. This principle of scientific study and reductionist behavior was directly in opposition to the concurrent writings in the field of teacher education. With the exception of a few dissidents, like Jessie Newlon at Columbia Teachers College, the schism between administration and classroom instruction continued throughout the majority of the next half-century. It was not until this decade that administrative writings repeatedly called upon the profession to unify in a spirit that Newlon had the forethought to espouse in his best known work, Educational Administration As Social Policy (1934):

> In education, the problem is not so much one of securing efficiency, as of determining the ends to which efficiency shall be directed and of utilizing all available professional knowledge and insight in the formation of policies. Educational administrators must see that the exclusion of teachers from the process of formulating policies atrophies their power to think, and eventually makes of them the most unquestioning and submissive of conformists. The result is educational policies less well considered, less well comprehended by those who must put them into operation and, in the end, a less competent classroom teacher (p.224).

The purpose of this paper is to move beyond the historical foundation of teacher empowerment and educational administration as separate and exclusive entities. Here an attempt will be made to fuse the missions of each into a model for principalship

preparation that embraces the need for concepts and methodologies that ensure integration, group affiliation, employee input, effective multidirectional communication, and democratic leadership (Smith, 1988). By examining the present state of teacher empowerment and leadership opportunities in administration, a common bond will emerge that resoundingly calls for the elimination of a separatist mentality and implores teachers and administrators alike to begin preparing for schooling as emancipatory process (Giroux, 1988).

REFLECTIONS ON TEACHER EMPOWERMENT

As a primary entity to the increased power of classroom teachers, few could argue that an expanded base of professional knowledge will indeed precipitate change in the role of the teacher as an instructional leader. Knowledge is indeed power; therefore, the more knowledge one receives, the greater power he/she will have in respect to any given situation. As undergraduate and graduate teacher education institutions continue to focus on research in the areas of increased content specialization, efficacious teaching strategies, curricular innovations, and the findings of effective schools literature, graduates of these programs will enter the teaching profession with a multiplicity of talents supported by fundamental knowledge in respect to success of these pedagogical applications. As Helen Regan (1988) so aptly states:

> Within the next decade, as young men and women enter the teaching field prepared to implement the new body of knowledge it will be harder for administrators to maintain their accustomed status and authority through position power. Administrators must respond to changing conditions within the profession or run the risk of finding themselves with little real decision making authority in their schools.

A second crucial theme in respect to teacher empowerment can be found in the area of role expectation and classroom performance. As teacher candidates increasingly have the opportunity to reflect upon their roles as generators of knowledge and recipients of knowledge, the more comfortable they will become with the sense of their own power as a learner and as a teacher (Yonemura, 1986). The educator who becomes immersed in the assumption that teaching is a compatriot to lifelong learning will certainly struggle to acquire systematic knowledge about what effective teaching is, how it can best be described, and where it can be identified. However it is not the neophyte teacher alone who desires these skills. Staff development opportunities for veteran teachers must also focus on the need to develop a technical vocabulary and comprehensive awareness of effective teaching strategies that bring forth significant impact upon the learning environment. As Gene Maeroff (1988) states:

> Teachers are hungry for stimulating educational experiences. If they did not care about learning, they would not have contemplated careers in the classroom. But they end up divorced from scholarship and devoid of time and incentives to continue to learn (p. 476).

Self-directed staff development programs must be established for all teachers in an attempt to renew the aforementioned stimulation and bring forth incentives for learning that reify the importance of this disposition.

As a third tenet of teacher empowerment, we must examine the role of the teacher in respect to building-wide and district-wide decision making. As modern educators continue to gain professional knowledge and skills, it appears only obvious that they should be given the opportunity to share this expertise in respect to all matters that impact upon their professional lives. Ideally, this concept would lead teachers and administrators to work as partners in respect to a myriad of concerns that arise throughout the given school year. Because teachers serve as the instructional experts in any elementary or secondary school setting, these individuals must be given the authority (including appropriate release time) to design and revise the curriculum as they deem appropriate. In the spirit of partnership, principals would serve as advisory members for this team and would appear at meetings when appropriate. This type of behavior clearly supports the findings of the Carnegie Task Force On Teaching As A Profession (1986). Here it was stated that schools must create an environment for teachers to operate with the discretion and autonomy that other professionals outside of education presently enjoy. The Task Force clearly noted: "This does not mean that no one is in charge, but it does mean that people practicing their profession decide what is to be done and how it is to be done within the constraints imposed by the larger goals of the organization" (p. 39).

In concluding this section on teacher empowerment, the reader must be reminded that the devaluing and deskilling of teacher work has become commonplace in many segments of American society. Instead of learning to raise probing questions about different classroom methods, research techniques, and theories of education, teachers have often been preoccupied with the "how to" and "what works best" syndrome (Giroux, 1988). As education progresses toward a new reality, with empowered teachers involved in various aspects of the decision making process, this deskilling and devaluing will indeed diminish. Erlandson and Bifano (1987) lend hope to this reality with the following statement:

> The research clearly demonstrates that the empowerment of teachers has a positive impact on their professional image, on their commitment to the mission of the school, and on their decision to remain in teaching (p. 35).

THE SHIFTING PARADIGM OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Although the concept of teacher empowerment has not been absorbed by the educational administration profession with equal vigor to that of teacher education, a current administrative literature review reveals significant interest in the various parameters that bound this area of study. The traditional role of principal as "storehouse of knowledge and power" is no longer a dominant consideration for the practicing school administrator. Commonly held authoritarian notions of the 1950's, 1960's, and 1970's have now been replaced with a blended emphasis on human skills, technical skills, and conceptual skills (Hoyle, 1989). Leadership in educational administration can no longer be viewed as simply managerial; it has become an accepted aspect of the principal's role to act as a person of vision, one who can communicate educational values in an attempt to impact upon the overall effectiveness of a given school environment (Champlin, 1987). As a leader of a modern educational institution, the successful principal must understand the many elements that characterize effective schools and exhibit a clear understanding for those tangential factors that make each school a unique site for teaching and learning (Deal, 1987).

The characteristics outlined above are certainly much different from those used to describe the principal of yesteryear - the quintessential manager of resources and time. Managerial expertise is certainly an important factor in respect to modern school

administration; however, this type of expertise is merely a small piece of the administrative puzzle. Our profession has moved beyond the era of budgets, bonds, and busses and now is focusing on an age characterized by teaching, talent, and tenacity. As we listen to the words of Richard Gibbony (1987), this focus on change comes clearly into view:

> Leadership in education must be rooted in the fundamental enlightenment of thought. The intellectual and moral center of education is learning and teaching. Learning and teaching, and the seminal ideas and values and exemplary practice that inform them, are all that constitute what is properly the study of education. This is all that any teacher or administrator must know. All else is secondary and supportive. It is these things that enable the managerial eye not only to see but to see with a compelling vision for the future (p. 28).

A recent national study of elementary and middle school principals (Doud, 1989) revealed that instructional leadership and support are indeed the principal's highest priority. This statement is overtly reinforced by the amount of time given to these specific areas of concern. The average principal responding to this survey indicated that 25% of his/her daily routine is given to the area of supervision and evaluation of teaching personnel. In keeping with The Report of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (1987), it appears that principals are making gallant attempts to recognize and support excellence in teaching, learning, and research. As the time devoted to instructional evaluation and improvement increases, it appears only logical that these educational leaders will find ways of restructuring the teacher's daily schedules that increased interaction among and between professional adults will be facilitated (Daresch, 1989). It is through action of this nature that legitimate teacher empowerment will not only be aided but will most certainly become a reality.

As a final element of justification for similarity in thought and action between teacher empowerment and educational administration, the reader needs only to refer to the work of June Hogue (1988). Hogue's synthesis of recent research in the area of instructional leadership and principalship behavior openly asserts a need for recognition of teachers as capable allies in school improvement, reduction of barriers between administration and classroom teaching, acknowledgement of teachers as specialists in respect to subject-specific expertise, and a reward system that compensates all staff members directly involved in projects designed for the improvement of curriculum and instruction. The following quote from Hogue's work, entitled "Instructional Leadership: Recent Research," clearly demonstrates the need for administrators to elicit support and input from all members of the educational team:

> Wise instructional leaders will seek out capable educators from many ranks and involve them in appropriate ways. They will reach upward, downward, and horizontally across the organizational chart as they link their own efforts with those of other individuals in addressing the tasks of instructional leadership through team efforts (p. 40).

THE EXPERIENTIAL PROGRAM FOR PREPARING SCHOOL PRINCIPALS: A NEW CONCEPT IN ADMINISTRATOR TRAINING

To accept the modernized notion of teacher empowerment and administrative action as mutually beneficial and, nonetheless, continue to train school principals in a

traditional fashion appears both oxymoronic and counterproductive. For this reason, Butler University in 1982 founded a novel program that based administrative study on experiential learning. Unlike most graduate programs, here students were encouraged to develop a solid knowledge base in respect to administration but were also given opportunities to acquire new skills through active experience in the profession. The Experiential Program for Preparing School Principals (EPPSP) was designed and continues to operate as an andragogical learning center. As a center for adult learning, students work on projects as collaborative teams; learn through self-direction; capitalize on prior experience; and actively engage in critical and reflective thinking processes (Moore, 1988). Through the use of research like that conducted by Lieberman and Miller (1981), Stallings and Mohlman (1981), and Berman and McLaughlin (1976), it was concluded that the most effective mode for bringing about meaningful improvements across the entire strata of K-12 education was to educate principals in a manner that reflected the most positive elements of comprehensive staff development. These elements include (Griffin, 1983):

1. participant design and interaction.
2. a mitigation, to some degree, of status between participant and instructor.
3. the formation of presentations based upon a careful analysis of the profession and group at hand.
4. flexibility in respect to the needs of the participants and the university environment.

Each October the selection process begins for a new group of EPPSP students. Applicants are screened in respect to prior experience, academic background, degree status, and an individual interview with the selection committee. As the cohort group is selected, these twenty-fiye men and women will work together throughout a two-year period. During this time, knowledge, skills, and experiences will be provided in an attempt to afford a secure foundation in respect to the essentials of school leadership. Topics are discussed in semiweekly seminars that include: staff and student personnel, school/community relations, organizational behavior, leadership theory, supervision, curriculum development, scheduling and budgeting, school law, consultation and counseling, and school plant management.

Through the use of an experiential instructional model, students are no longer expected to merely study about curricular issues, about financial practices, or about the management of school facilities. These students are encouraged to actively acquire new information to strive for identification and understanding of complex concepts and to perceive, as well as synthesize, the future implication for this newly acquired informational base. The integration of administrative content with the practice of leadership provides each member of the cohort group with the opportunity to embrace the essential concepts of this learning methodology. As these graduate students interact with selected mentors, the opportunity to model appropriate professional behavior and reflect upon inappropriate action is continuously afforded. Therefore, seminar sessions often become a type of reflective practicum, where students struggle with the dichotomy between theory and practice (Schon, 1987).

Fifty-two proficiencies for administrative excellence were developed in an attempt to provide an ongoing opportunity for theory and practice to unite in a meaningful fashion. These administrative proficiencies include:

1. Conducting a needs assessment.
2. Designing, developing, and implementing a staff development program.

3. Participating in an effort to improve cultural understanding and human relations in a school community.
4. Forming a partnership with the community using various resources to enhance the educational atmosphere.
5. Leading a team of teaching professionals in a problem- solving process, resulting in a resolution of an instructional dilemma.

As each semester concludes, the student and faculty meet on an individual basis to discuss the many accomplishments that have transpired during the preceding academic term. These discussion sessions or exit interviews have become an integral part of the overall learning and growing process. Here each student has the opportunity to celebrate success, as well as analyze failure. During this time, comprehensive projects are discussed and additional ventures are planned for the forthcoming semesters. During the final phase of EPPSP, students copiously compile data relating to the many studies and projects that have been implemented during this two-year program. As these portfolios are reviewed, faculty members are perpetually amazed by the thorough and holistic nature of each documented journal. These portfolios contain a cornucopia of administrative experience, including activities such as: district-wide computer networking projects, revised substitute handbooks for elementary and secondary schools, redesigned teacher evaluation packages, new staff development projects for specific grade levels and subject areas, and the presentation of curriculum guides for previously unoffered courses.

By examining the knowledge, skills, and experiences provided in EPPSP, it is readily apparent that the program faculty desires to see change in the overall instructional climate of the elementary and secondary school. An essential mechanism for this change process rests within the confines of embracing and internalizing the basic tenets of teacher empowerment. Therefore, the aspiring principals in this program are continually encouraged to work collegially with all members of the instructional team. Interaction among and between teachers, administrators, and support personnel through use of adult learning strategies, expanded role definition, interdisciplinary intellectualism, and increased opportunities for the acquisition of knowledge is a fundamental concern for all those involved with EPPSP. It is through these strategies, combined with a necessary requisite of positive human relations skills (Smith, 1988), that tomorrow's educational leaders will not only empower teachers but will advance the entire notion of what empowerment can truly be.

CONCLUSION

Although the fields of teacher education and educational administration have come to accept teacher empowerment through a much different historical context, few could argue that this notion is well entrenched in the current professional writings of each field. Today's educational leader has clearly been identified as one who can work with and facilitate growth opportunities for the empowered teacher. No longer can the principal serve as the "storehouse of knowledge and power." The instructional leader for the late 1980's and beyond must be one who can provide for excellence in instruction via increased opportunities for teacher learning and decision making.

As the demands upon the principal change, so must the graduate programs that prepare these men and women for leadership roles. Butler University has developed an experiential preparation program that attempts to holistically infuse many of the current notions relating to empowerment and instructional leadership. This program seeks to prepare those who honestly hope to make an impact upon the profession through collegial interaction and building-based collaboration. As others in the profession of school

administration become acclimatized to the importance of these leadership characteristics, opportunities for the development of similar programs that concentrate on process, as well as content, remain a dream to all those who founded EPPSP.

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THE FOXFIRE APPROACH AND TEACHER EMPOWERMENT; PARTNERSHIPS WITH SMALL COLLEGES

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Foxfire is a name that is recognized by many different kinds of folks - mountain people, Appalachian folklorists and their followers, English teachers, progressive educators, and frustrated daughters who are Christmas shopping for adult parents who "don't really need anything." For those people, Foxfire may mean, respectively, the luminescent fungi found in the southern woods, the book series that documents southern Appalachian traditions, cultural journalism, a Dewey-based educational approach, or net books that are reasonably priced and also appeal to the yearnings that most people seem to have for a connection with the past. For those of us in teacher education, Foxfire is rapidly becoming defined in yet another way - teacher empowerment. Because Foxfire is so multidimensional, because it is defined in so many different ways by different people, answering some common questions about the evolution of the Foxfire approach may be helpful in understanding its potential for empowerment.

What is Foxfire?

Eliot Wigginton arrived in Rabun Gap, Georgia in 1966, fresh from B.A. and M.A.T. programs in English at Cornell University, ready to teach English to high school students. The school was a rather unusual combination of a private, Christian, residential school that also doubled as the local public high school for students in the rural section of the county. After only a few months of teaching, Wigginton recognized that the traditional methods of teaching were not working. Not only were students not excited by his teaching, they practically dared him to try to teach them anything. Almost out of sheer frustration, Wigginton recognized with his students that his methods were not working, and he proposed some alternatives to the traditional methods he had been using.

The students and Wigginton decided that writing could be learned by putting together a magazine centered around interviews of local people who related Appalachian traditions and customs to the students. The first magazines were very popular with local residents, and requests kept coming in for back issues. Eventually collections from the magazines were put together in the best-selling series of Foxfire books. The rest, detailed beautifully in Wigginton's book, Sometimes A Shining Moment (1985), is history.

As dissatisfaction with the American educational system grew and the Foxfire books became known nationally and internationally, educators, business leaders, folklorists, and even some of those Christmas shoppers, began to wonder about the teaching strategies that were used with students to produce those books. Could those strategies be used by other teachers, with effective results? The parade of visitors began to come to the Rabun Gap-Nacoochee School, and subsequently to the Rabun County High School, where Wigginton still teaches. Wigginton's speaking schedule became and remains clogged.

In an effort to reach a larger audience in a more efficient way, Wigginton was persuaded to write Sometimes A Shining Moment and to teach seminars for experienced teachers. At the present time, seminars have been offered at Berea College, Cornell University, Georgia State University, North Georgia College, and the University of Idaho.

In the summer of 1989, additional courses will be taught at Carson-Newman College, the University of Washington, and Harvard University. As a result of Wigginton's dialogues with teachers, from all grade levels and all curriculum areas, he began to focus on the essential elements of the approach.

What Characterizes the Foxfire Approach?

In Hands On, the Foxfire journal for teachers, and in the most recent issue of the Harvard Educational Review, Wigginton outlines the core practices of his approach. The core practices, very briefly summarized, involve: 1. basing instruction on student interests; 2. relating instruction to the community in which the students are involved, as well as viewing the community as a resource for learning; 3. providing for active, rather than passive, involvement of students in learning activities; 4. encouraging peer collaboration and instruction; 5. defining the role of teacher as collaborator and leader, rather than boss; 6. providing an audience for student work beyond the teacher - and making sure that the audience values the student work; 7. ensuring the academic integrity of the work, including the addressing of state mandated guidelines for meeting basic skills; 8. evaluating the learning process at all points; and 9. planning for appropriate sequencing and continuity in instructional activities. The tenth core practice, added in the Harvard Educational Review article, is somewhat a summary of the effects of the other nine practices. The statement is an eloquent expression of the ultimate goal of the Foxfire approach:

> As students become more thoughtful participants in their own education, our goal must be to help them become increasingly able and willing to guide their own learning, fearlessly, for the rest of their lives. Through constant evaluation of experience, and examination and application of the curriculum, they approach a state of independence, of responsible behavior, and even, in the best of all worlds, of something called wisdom. (Wigginton 1989, p. 28).

An evaluation of the effectiveness of the Foxfire approach is beyond the scope of this paper, but a few summary quotes from the most thorough study of Foxfire to date provide a general feel for how educators regard the approach:

> Under careful scrutiny, it turns out to be neither as good as one might have hoped, nor as bad as one might have feared. Moreover, when compared to conventional schooling practice...Foxfire fares remarkably well and merits a great deal of genuine praise (Puckett 1989, p. 294).

> Properly replicated, Foxfire has the potential to be the catalyst for a new wave of school improvement combining academic integrity, social consciousness, and the sheer pleasure of experiential education in the service of America's youth (Puckett 1989, p. 299).

What Is The Foxfire Teacher Network?

In the seminars for teachers, the Foxfire approach is modeled by Wigginton, other Foxfire staff, course instructors, and increasingly, teachers who have completed the seminar in previous years and who have implemented the approach successfully in their own

classrooms. After the first summer seminars, some teachers did develop projects with their students. But after experimenting with the approach, teachers frequently had questions and concerns that they wanted to discuss with Wig and other teachers. It soon became apparent that teachers needed and wanted ongoing support from and dialogue with other teachers who were trying to implement the Foxfire approach.

In all of the areas where courses have been offered, teacher networks have now been established, with a paid coordinator, to facilitate the ongoing exploration of the method. Each network assumes responsibility for its own activities, and each has its own character. But all of the networks have regular newsletters, small-group meetings, retreats for in-depth exploration of topics of interest, and writing workshops to develop articles about their classroom projects for publication in Hands On.

In addition, some of the teachers are also participating in a computer-linked network with one another, in which information can be shared with other teachers and students across the states and nation. Individual networks have secured funding to send teachers for additional training experiences, such as participation in the Breadloaf summer course. As teachers become more confident in the use of the approach, they have shared their experiences at a wide variety of professional meetings. More importantly, they have also begun to participate actively in teaching the seminars for new teachers each year. Finally, a second Foxfire course is offered for teachers who have completed the first seminar and who wish to explore the approach in greater depth, thus providing for continued professional development.

How Does The Foxfire Teacher Network Contribute To Teacher Empowerment?

Just as the most thorough evaluation of the Foxfire approach to date has used qualitative research methodology (Puckett 1989), the best evidence of the Foxfire potential for teacher empowerment comes from informal conversations with teachers who are active network participants. These lively conversations are often inspirational - teachers talk about the Foxfire approach as changing their own personal lives, as well as those of their students. They describe projects that have ranged from in-depth explorations of issues such as homelessness, personal safety, environmental pollution, as well as the use of student written stories as alternatives to the exclusive use of the basal reader for reading instruction. One teacher documents a significant increase in the reading level of her second graders as a result of her change in reading instruction.

Teachers' descriptions of qualitative changes in students' behaviors and attitudes, as well as skills, are numerous. Taken together, they are convincing evidence that the teachers using the Foxfire approach feel that they can make a difference in their classrooms! Perhaps it is not the articles documenting student projects in Hands On, or the actual content of what the teachers are communicating in conversations that is impressive; instead it is the fervor and the enthusiasm with which they express themselves.

Exactly how empowerment is defined and how teachers become empowered, is the focus of several current articles, as evidenced by recent works in AILACTE and AACTE presentations and journals (Deiz 1989; Mertens and Yarger 1988). However, the Foxfire approach appears to contribute to empowerment through the modeling and the subsequent use of the core practices with students. Reflective thinking, problem-solving, community involvement, and participation in the democratic process are at the heart of the core practices. As teachers help students to become empowered, they, too, seem to develop the skills for their own empowerment.

A significant issue in the empowerment "struggle" is that of being "permitted" to become empowered. The Foxfire seminar grants teachers that permission. Teachers are viewed initially as competent, capable individuals who can design, with their students, effective instruction that meets and exceeds state mandated guidelines. Opportunities for ongoing dialogue with other teachers and professional development activities contribute to enhanced competence and confidence. Recognition of competence, whether in the form of publication in Hands On or in other journals (Stumbo, 1989), or in assuming the role of teacher in the Foxfire courses, adds to the teacher's self-confidence as a leader in the profession.

An increasing component of the Foxfire courses focuses on the role of teacher as researcher (Bissex and Bullock 1987; Goswami and Stillman 1987), which clearly provides classroom teachers with new tools for articulating the soundness of their methods to others (Goswami 1987). Teachers who document the effectiveness of their teaching will have even more evidence to support their teaching practices, rather than having to accept, without question, the results of standardized measures.

Virtually all of the reports calling for reform in the schools speak to the need for teacher leadership in the schools (Gross and Gross 1985). The teaching and research skills acquired in the Foxfire courses, combined with opportunities for leadership in the teacher network, would appear to be helpful in fostering the empowerment of teachers to assume leadership roles in the broader educational community.

How Does The Foxfire Network Work In The Small College Setting?

The first Foxfire seminar in a small private college was offered as a Mellon Summer Seminar at Berea College in Berea, Kentucky. Berea College, a four-year liberal arts college, has had a long tradition of providing service to the Appalachian region, and the first seminar, offered in 1985, was open to teachers from the entire Appalachian region. When it became evident that the teachers wanted to participate in an ongoing network, the enrollment was restricted to teachers from the East Kentucky area.

Today, the East Kentucky Teacher Network is the network with the largest number of active members. If empowerment is defined in terms of taking responsibility for one's own continuing growth (Deiz, 1989), then one could certainly say that many of the Kentucky teachers have been empowered! Teachers from the network have published articles in journals for teachers; their students and they have been recognized in local, regional, and national media; they have secured funding for classroom projects from a variety of sources; and they have become leaders in local school districts. For example, two teachers from one school district recently have written a proposal for school-based management. In addition, teachers from the network have been frequent guests in classes in the Education Department where they share the ways in which they have been able to implement effective teaching strategies in their own classrooms. Students preparing to be teachers have visited in and completed practicum assignments in Foxfire teachers' classrooms.

For the first time, in the 1989-90 academic year, an experienced Foxfire teacher will be on sabbatical leave to visit classrooms to provide assistance to other network teachers. The oft-cited recommendations for school reform are being actualized in Kentucky - experienced teachers truly are beginning to play an active role in training students, mentoring new teachers, and making decisions within the local school system.

The next Foxfire collaboration with a liberal arts college has begun in East Tennessee. Carson-Newman College is a small, liberal arts college located in East Tennessee. The college has had a well-established teacher education program in place for many years, and a graduate program, offering both the M.Ed. and the M.A.T., has been added recently. When the college completed a strategic plan for the year 2001, one of the goals was to develop further already existing interests in the Appalachian Studies area.

At approximately the same time, the Appalachian Regional Commission approached Eliot Wigginton to request that he establish Foxfire courses and networks in Tennessee and West Virginia, in an effort to combat the high rates of illiteracy in those two states. Carson-Newman College saw a unique opportunity to provide a service to the Appalachian area through the formation of the Foxfire network in the Graduate Studies program. The Board of Trustees approved the offering of the graduate seminar, tuition-free, to 25 experienced teachers in the summer of 1989. Throughout the 1989-90 academic year, teachers will participate in the Foxfire Teacher Network, which will be organized somewhat like the other existing networks. It is anticipated that these teachers will help to select course participants and serve as part of the faculty for the 1990 summer seminar.

Initial funding came from the college itself, in its efforts to live up to its commitment to the Appalachian region and to the graduate program in education. Since that time, additional funding has been provided through the Appalachian Regional Commission as well as a sizeable grant from the Lyndhurst Foundation in Chattanooga, Tennessee to the Foxfire Fund, Inc. for its network activities in the state of Tennessee.

What's Next For The Foxfire Teacher Network?

The existing networks have provided good examples of successful implementation of the Foxfire approach in both rural and urban settings - the model has been replicated, refined, and individualized! Foxfire as a stimulus for teacher empowerment - regardless of how it is defined - seems logical. With only a short history of active networks, anecdotal evidence that reveals the contrast in the leadership involvement of teachers - before and after they took the course - is accumulating. Check back a year from now!

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Alienation as the Conceptual Foundation for Incorporating Teacher Empowerment into the Teacher Education Knowledge Base

by Michael Vavrus

Introduction

With in the teacher empowerment movement a theoretical framework for analyzing the condition of teaching as work is not widely considered. More often the emphasis is upon finding a technical knowledge base that underpins teaching which in turn would serve as the basis for licensing boards to be controlled by teachers (Darling-Hammond 1988; National Board for Professional Teaching Standards n.d.; NEA Pursues Its Plan 1987) "since monopolistic licensure, with the licensing process in the hands of the professions themselves, is the most common way in which professions control the content of their work" (Simpson 1985, 420). As a creation of state authority the work of teaching faces unique and complex societal expectations considerably different than other established professions. Given the special character of the varying expectations held by interest groups focusing on the productivity of teachers, an articulated theory would provide teacher education students the foundation for participating completely and in an informed manner in their prospective careers.

As the Holmes (Tomorrow's Teachers 1986) and Carnegie reports (A Nation Prepared 1986) gave national legitimacy in the latter half of the 1980's to the fact that teaching does not fall neatly into the category of a profession, the plight of the unempowered teacher was more widely revealed.[1] The denial to teachers for participation in the schooling decision-making process echoes Dewey's (1920) characterization of a despotically governed society with people "engaged in activity which is socially serviceable, but whose service they do not understand and have no personal interest" (98). The undemocratic governing/working environments of schools have created the existence of alienated teachers whose rumblings are fueling teacher empowerment.

A social philosophical understanding as to why teachers are alienated is assisted through an analysis of the early writings of Marx ([1932] 1973a; [1932] 1973b; [1849] 1973c) in relationship to social constructions of reality in the United States. However, the status quo nature of teaching and teacher education with its historically antitheoretical, nonreflective emphasis (Bowers 1977; Giroux 1988; Wildman and Nile 1987) combined with the hegemony of individualistic psychological analyses has tended to exempt comprehensive social system critiques from the teacher preparation knowledge base.[2] The early normal schools "were interested not in producing moral crusaders who would engage in open public conflict over moral and social issues but in producing teachers who would limit their moral campaigns to shaping student character" (Spring 1986, 123). In contemporary times teacher educators and teachers find that by "identifying themselves as spokespersons for - or representatives of - the system in it local manifestation, they avoid interrogation and critique" (Greene 1978, 56). Illustrative of this is Diez's (1989) experience in an urban school restructuring project where she encountered "many teachers who cannot see beyond the constraints they currently face" (12).

Although strong liberal arts general studies programs tend to include some of the works of Marx on their reading lists, the ideas of this liberal arts component are rarely applied to course work in professional education programs. As Western civilization's primary philosopher to analyze the impact of objective working conditions on the psychological functioning of individuals from the perspective of alienation (Schacht, 1970),

Marx's actual philosophical statements have historically been confused with international political movements, limiting public discourse of his ideas.[3]

An advantage of considering work alienation in relationship to a career in teaching and the rise of the teacher empowerment movement is that by rejecting categorical descriptions of reality, a theory of alienation offers broad social philosophical approaches to problems previously considered primarily the domain of psychology.[4] The dialectic methodology "provides a framework which is unlike that of mainstream academic disciplines" by integrating "subject matters which are normally treated as separate branches of knowledge about society" (Harrington 1976, 201). Ollman (1976) explains that

> instead of seeking a strict causal tie between the mode of production and other institutions and practices of society which precludes complex social interactions, we must begin by accepting the existence of this interaction.... This, and not technological determinism, is the conception of history illustrated in all Marx's detailed discussions of political and social phenomena. If Marx is at ease with a foot on each side of the fence, it is because, for him, the fence does not exist (25).

The Alienated Teacher/The Empowered Teacher

Empowerment may be conceptualized as the overcoming of workplace alienation. Empowerment is not thought of here as a private liberty gained for an individual, but as the freedom to participate more fully in public affairs as a teacher.[5] Understanding the nature of alienation clarifies how teachers are presently denied direct participation in the decisions which affect their work. The nature of teacher alienation, however, is not found to be synonymous, for example, with the alienation of an industrial worker since "the forms of alienation differ for each class because their position and style of life differ" (Ollman, 132).

Alienation represents the separation of an individual from one's work as a subsumed part of a larger social structure and is unrelated to explanations of the alienated individual as psychologically abnormal.[6] Related to an intrapersonal rationale for alienation is the use of the term "burn-out" interchangeably with alienation (Dworkin, 1987) in the absence of an analysis of structural workplace conditions when stress-related symptoms from one's work may actually be a function of alienating work conditions (Vavrus 1987). Job satisfaction studies further obfuscate an understanding of work alienation by implicitly suggesting that if individuals are satisfied with their jobs, they are not experiencing alienation. Job satisfaction researchers often are more concerned with individual perceptions than the nature of the work performed (Schacht). Such studies continue to lead toward explanations based on one's genetic disposition for finding job satisfaction (see Arvey et al. 1989) rather than acknowledging that an individual may report satisfaction or high morale yet be far removed from being labeled an empowered professional.

The concept of alienation implies an evolving state, "not merely that some sort of 'alienness' exists, but also that a process of 'becoming alien' has occurred" (Schacht, 179-80). The course of alienation is initiated when school boards purchase the "labor power" (Marx [1849] 1973c) of teachers. With their labor serving as a market commodity, teachers encounter managers of schools who make decisions as to how to use this particular item, labor power, in the absence of participatory decision making with teachers. The utilization of teachers' labor becomes reified as an organizational variable. Once an individual sells

his or her labor power, Marx [1932] 1973a) conceptualized four aspects which constitute the whole of work alienation:

> (1) The relation of the worker to the product of labour as an alien object exercising power over him....
> (2) The relation of labour to the act of production within the labour process. The relation is the relations of the worker to his own activity as an alien activity not belonging to him.... Estranged labour turns thus:
> (3) Man's species being both nature and his spiritual species property, onto a being alien to him, into a means to his individual existence....
> (4) The estrangement of man from man (60-3).

The product of teacher labor has traditionally been difficult for policymakers and the public to define. The ideology of accountability and efficiency has attempted to define the outcome of teaching in terms of student test scores. Yet what knowledge ought to be taught, let alone be measured with validity, remains ambiguous (see What to Teach 1989). On a societal level a capitalist belief system functions to interpret the value of education primarily on the grounds of economic utility with an assessment of the students' "human capital" potential serving as the end result.

As targeted agents for generating test score quotas tied to anticipated measures of economic worth, teachers are generally excluded from determining the schooling production goals which collectively become an "alien object" far removed from the preservice teachers' anticipation of developing the whole child.[7] When teachers begin to see their own endeavors serving more as a commodity than as a personally fulfilling activity for both themselves and the children they serve, the realization of alienation is heightened. Possibly due to the vagueness of the product of schooling and the external control over the process of teacher labor, teachers may come to question the value and importance of the work they are performing. As individuals abstracted from what they may have at one time anticipated to be their central creative experience for making a positive contribution in public life, teachers are pushed eventually to expect intrinsic satisfaction through isolated elements of their work outside their teaching careers rather than through self-invested engagement in the entirety of their work. Indicative of this is research on the relationship between alienation and teacher career stages which finds that the longer teachers have been employed, the more alienated and less involved they are with their labor (Vavrus 1979).

In this process "the teacher's feeling of responsibility may well be eroded by an implicit demand that he be the agent of an externally defined purpose, which he can only understand as a slogan or still another expression of prevailing piety" (Greene 1973, 269-70). The teacher avoids investing his or her human qualities or "species being" into the work of teaching, seeing employment as merely "a means to his individual existence." Finally, work alienation distances teachers from one another as evidenced by the novelty of the relatively few teachers nationally having the opportunity through teacher empowerment efforts to analyze in a collaborative atmosphere the various aspects of their work.

In the movement toward alienation teachers may lose whatever curriculum development abilities they may have gained in their teacher education programs. Apple (1987) describes this as the "de-skilling" of teachers, a condition in which teachers' skills begin to suffer from "atrophy" induced by a lack of use due to prescribed curricula and teaching strategies (68). In this context teachers are not perceived as creative curriculum designers but as technocrats. Trivial tasks directing teachers away from conceptually

organizing their own teaching become misinterpreted as professional activity (Apple 1986). However, "teachers need to have a stake in what they teach. They are not merely passive tubes or mechanical conveyers of someone else's ambitions and interests" (Eisner 1985, vi).

Teachers in the process of overcoming alienation, on the other hand, are in a developing state of empowerment, moving toward the ideal of "humanism,...the genuine...[and] true resolution of the strife between existence and essence, between objectification and self-confirmation, between freedom and necessity, between the individual and the species" (Marx [1932] 1973a, 70). Through empowerment efforts teachers begin to experience a sense of wholeness with their original career goals and with the actual experiences of being a teacher. Since teachers are employed by a public agency, their empowerment provides them with the opportunity to relate authentically with their local communities as educators possessing valued professional judgments rather than as alienated workers separated from the broader public sphere of life related to their work.

If to empower is understood to mean to invest with power, it may be assumed that all social relations impacting upon the schooling process are wrought with some form of power. Power has always existed in the management of schools and affected the way in which school boards, administrators, teachers, parents, community members, and legislators have perceived themselves. "Power shapes and informs our psyche," Cherryholmes (1988) clarifies. "The result is that we are objects of social institutions and processes while we intentionally engage in meaningful behavior" (35). Using the notion of power, the teacher empowerment movement of the 1990's may be conceived as involved in the act of challenging and undermining the belief that existing asymmetrical power arrangements are natural and permanent.

An increase in power gained by teachers, the key practitioners in the schooling social relation, provides them with more control over the decisions which pertain to their labor, moving them away from a state of alienation. Teacher empowerment becomes "the power to exercise one's craft with confidence and to help shape the way that the job is to be done" (Maeroff 1988, 4). At the embryonic stage of the current teacher empowerment movement it appears that where teacher involvement in school-level decision making has been greatly expanded beyond the norm, teachers have recognized that they do not want to be responsible for all decisions administrators traditionally handle, but just those which most directly impact on their work as educators (Maeroff; 'The Sky's the Limit' 1987). In addition to the freedom for professional development related to improving teaching performance as part of their careers, teachers consider crucial their power to have "access to resources and the ability to mobilize them, the availability of the tools to do their job, and the capability to influence the goals and directions of their institution" (McLaughlin and Yee 1988, 28). This includes input in the hiring of new administrators for their school districts, budget determinations for the teachers' own school, standardized test selection and use, evaluation of their own work, and broad curriculum determinations (Vavrus 1979). Furthermore, Greene (1988) in The Dialectic of Freedom insists that the process of empowerment ought to call into question and philosophically deconstruct the familiar physical configurations of the school in order for all parties to arrive at fresh understandings and perspectives of this aspect of schooling and to act upon those new insights in the context of expanding involvement of teachers in the public dimension of their work.

For the realization of empowerment over alienation the exposition of the meaning of teaching and schooling by teachers must take place. By interpreting lived situations rather than the blindly accepting depersonalized, ahistorical assumptions, empowerment becomes involved in the goal of "promoting human dignity" (Cherryholmes, 172).[8] The use

of the term collaboration in educational literature may be considered a dimension of interpretative action in which the emphasis is on dialectic rather than fixed relations among participants. "To collaborate," Conoley (1989) elucidates, "implies joint responsibility and action to accomplish a task. Further, collaborative relationships are nonhierarchical and are based on complementary skills and goals" (245). Collaboration among teachers may be likened to the manner in which phenomenological and interpretative research differs from traditional practice in that "subjects are central to the discourse, modes of argument looser, the range of metaphor wider, and the continuing social construction of our institutions and interactions explicitly acknowledged" (Cherryholmes,III).

Alienation and the Knowledge Base

> If the knowledge base for beginning teachers is extended to include knowledge about ideological and hegemonic forces in the culture, it also ought to encompass what is being said and done to stimulate critical thinking and critical consciousness (Greene 1989, 149).

My aforementioned explanation of the relationship between alienation and empowerment is intended for teacher educators as a foundation for conceptualizing teacher empowerment, not as direct information for ingestion by pre-service teachers. The dialectic methodology is not a linear model for proving and predicting events, but "a way of viewing things as moments in their own development in, with, and through other things" (Ollman, 52). The focus remains on the complexity of the social interactions impacting upon the schooling production process. But since the traditional introductory presentation of Marx's philosophies are often misconceived as static with the significance of the dialectic missed,[9] building upon whatever exposure to Marx students may have received through their liberal arts studies poses problems for educators seeking to incorporate his works directly into the teacher education knowledge base. If "life is not determined by consciousness, but consciousness by life" (Marx [1849] 1973c, 119); then an accurate description of the multiple realities of the educative process must first be addressed.

In order to incorporate teacher empowerment into the knowledge base, the starting point involves arriving at "a critical understanding that schools, like other institutions, are fabricated by human beings and that they embody particular attitudes and interpretations that serve particular cognitive and political interests" (Greene 1987, 185-6). The object here is "demystification" (Green 1978, 54) of the authoritarian explanations as to how the whole of education ought to be organized and for what purpose. The norm of promoting one-dimensional, linear instructional and social models is insufficient.

The groundwork for the agency of demystification is being laid to varying degrees by teacher preparation units shifting from a technical orientation of teaching to one highlighting reflective inquiry (see Posner 1989; Quisenberry, McIntyre, and Byrd 1989; Rogers 1985; Zeichner and Liston 1987). Similar to collaboration among teachers described earlier, reflective thinking becomes an aspect of interpretation. The focus of reflective teacher education, however, loses it full interpretive potential if limited only to discrete events within a field-based classroom in which external variables are ignored. An example of an attempt toward expansive reflective thinking is the elementary education student teaching program at the University of Wisconsin which articulates an emphasis on "the preparation of teachers who are both willing and able to reflect on the origins, purposes, and consequences of their actions, as well as on the material and ideological constraints and encouragements embedded in the classroom, school, and societal contexts in which they work" (Zeichner and Liston, 284).

In order for reflective thinking by teacher education students to be productive in relationship to an understanding of teacher empowerment, an examination of the nature of the work of teaching is appropriate. This does not involve a one unit exposure in a social foundations course, but an interpretation of what it means to be a teacher from varying perspectives throughout the curriculum. Traditional methodology courses can be restructured to provide an analysis of bureaucracy with its attendant opportunities and impediments to empowering teachers as decision makers, accentuating the value of curriculum developers with control over their labor.[10] In this context Wise (1989) advocates "a new paradigm for school management....[where] professional accountability can substitute, impart, for bureaucratic accountability" (303). This compliments Greene's contention that beginning teachers

> require some acquaintance with instances of the kind of thinking that involves a critical resistance to bureaucratic and other pressures and the kind of 'knowledgeability' that may provide the sense of agency needed to deal with them (1989, 150) [and she calls on teacher educators] to conceive of ways in which persons can be urged to assert themselves, to take their own initiative, to overcome their alienation (1978, 68).

During the development of the skills to realize a career in teaching as a craft, pre-service teachers need to encounter the notion of power and come to appreciate how it permeates all relations in their work. An understanding of power provides teacher education students a conceptual factor for recognizing alienating working conditions which impede teachers from realizing professional judgment and action. A breaking away from the limited technical vision of teacher preparation is necessary. Lesson plans, teaching techniques, and classroom management can be placed in a larger social philosophical context of origins and belief systems. Although teachers ought to be familiar, for example, with developing and using behavioral objectives in line with school district aims, teacher educators can also communicate the rationale and shortcomings of both behavioral objectives and state and local goals and demonstrate alternative means for organizing instruction.[11] Otherwise, despite even flexibility in teaching methods to meet objectives, "the objectives themselves usually remain unchallenged" (Apple 1986, 47).

Bitner (1986) argues that philosophical reflection is necessary in undergraduate education programs to allow for critical analysis. Not having had this opportunity, Bitner himself became an "educational schizophrenic" through an unarticulated conflict between his personal ethic of teaching and the traditional ideology of schooling (186). In other words he was experiencing alienation, for him a disturbing separation from his values and his labor induced by unnamed social forces and relations. To provide education students the necessary grounding and tools to seek empowerment is not to direct them "into an abstract conceptual universe at odds with and distanced from what one knows as one lives. Nor is it to be slotted into or prepared for a self-existent system that may well be closed to one in the end, or antagonistic to one's values, or alienating to one's being" (Greene 1987, 186). The teacher preparation program holds, therefore, the potential for contributing to the empowerment of teachers through reflective inquiry based on a critical theoretical and concrete understanding of alienation.

Barriers to Incorporating Empowerment into the Knowledge Base

Implied throughout empowerment is teacher participation in school district decision making, a vital step for overcoming work alienation. If involvement in composing policy is "the degree to which staff members participate in setting the goals and policies of the entire organization" (Aiken and Hage 1966, 498), activities not tied to these participation

components cannot be considered empowerment in the fullest sense. However, by broadening the concept of teacher to stress the notion of an empowered curriculum designer who acts on informed professional wisdom, teacher education programs place themselves in conflict with the operating ideology of the vast majority of school systems which seek to restrict the decision making capacity of teachers. The historic bureaucratic control of teaching is not easily overcome as it "represents a way of thinking about achieving educational quality that...distrusts...the teacher's ability and judgment in the classroom" (Johnson 1987, 239). Additionally, unlike lawyers or physicians in private practice, teachers are publicly funded by local communities and state governments who perceive the public, not teachers, as the adjudicators for policy determination.

Nevertheless, these observations do not suggest that education programs should abandon the pursuit of presenting a teacher preparation curriculum responsive to the professional integrity embedded in empowerment. "The teacher's role has been so narrowed," Goodland states, "that beginning teachers simply do not see that they have any responsibility for the totality of the school environment...[But] if young teachers get the idea that it's possible to be part of a renewing process, reform can begin" ('Healing' the Fractured Movement 1989, A3). Goodland further notes that teacher education must emulate schools in other professions which model and advocate the most current research and conceptions available in their respective knowledge bases. As Goodland sees it, though, teacher education programs too often mirror negative educational practices found in the schools.

The reflection in the knowledge base of existing schooling practices on strictly practical grounds is what Cherryholmes refers to as "vulgar pragmatism...,[the] unreflective acceptance of explicit and implicit standards, conventions, rules, and discourses-practices that we find around us" (151). In order to confront the spectre of alienation as a means to realizing empowerment, education faculties must engage in "critical pragmatism...[which] results when a sense of crisis is brought to our choices, when it is accepted that our standards, beliefs, values, guiding texts, and discourses-practices themselves require evaluation and reappraisal" (ibid.). In this setting teacher educators are confronted with the ethical dilemma of either (a) providing future teachers with an understanding of the potentially alienating nature of their work and the knowledge base for helping them in empowering their chosen vocation or (b) continuing to prepare technically proficient teachers who have only a vague notion of the social forces working against them for being empowered.

As the issue of teacher professionalism and empowerment gains more legitimacy in public debates, attempts will continue to confine empowerment within the ideology of cost effectiveness and control. Under a functionalist philosophy genuine involvement of teachers in policy formation is only advocated if some kind of economic advantage is realized for both the operation of schools and the greater society in which schools exist. Furthermore, school managers generally resist infringements on their power and support teacher participation based on "the degree of teacher discretion...determined not by institutional policy but by the generosity and goodwill of individual administrators" (Brandt 1989, 378). This reinforces reports that throughout the schools of the United States principals are inclined to display an attitude of paternalism toward teachers(). While urging that democratic values and respect for human dignity be taught in public schools and that school staffs and community members collaborate on curricular goals, the annual resolutions of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) (1989), for example, also state that "the major purpose of restructured schools is to improve student learning." The notion "to improve student learning" in its undefined form falls within the domain of the accountability ideology of "vulgar pragmatism." The pious call for

increases in student learning becomes a facade for avoiding a critical examination of alienating work conditions of teachers. The contradiction inherent within the sampled resolutions is found in ASCD's support for broadening the realm of the school decision making process while denying through its silence the potential role of empowered teachers. From a critical perspective Yonemura (1987) talks not in terms of student learning but of an atmosphere in which teacher educators convey to prospective teachers that out of teacher empowerment grows empowered children, a perception of children "as active, not only reactive, organisms....[who are not] passive memorizers of educational scripts to which they make no original contribution, and which do not expand and enrich their day-to-day experiences" (281, 277).

School environments which support empowerment rather than alienation do exist (Maeroff; McLaughlin and Yee). Yet, as many teacher educators know, the empowered school is rare, contributing to the dilemma of locating appropriate field placement sites for reflective inquiry with empowered teachers as role models. More often education students find teachers who define their freedom in terms of the delimitations of their work. Finn (1989) also contents that "too few [teachers] really want to change their ways" (40). Despite the necessity for personal economic concerns, when teachers focus only on wage and fringe benefit packages, they are only increasing the material value of their labor power they are selling to their school district while allowing alienating work conditions to go unaddressed. Rather than restricting their contact with teachers to the mechanics of field placement procedures, teacher educators can begin to avail themselves of occasions to meet collaboratively with teachers who are seeking to address the intrinsic nature of their work.

Infusing the teacher education curriculum with concepts of empowerment grounded in alienation theory cannot be met by cloistering these ideas in isolated courses. As Zeichner and Liston at the University of Wisconsin discovered, the compartmentalizing of even holistic reflective thinking into one component of the teacher education course of study is not successful since students need considerable "experience with the kinds of reasoned analysis and problematic stance toward practice" found in a program of reflective inquiry (302). But at the University of Wisconsin dispersing interpretative thinking throughout the course work poses a constraint generalizable to many other institutions in that "there was only limited discussion by faculty, students, and cooperating teachers of the program as a whole," resulting in the realization that the faculty needs to concern itself with "the lack of coherence n the total program and the lack of attention to the shared enterprise of teacher education" (304).

The Wisconsin experience suggests that interpretative collaboration among teacher education faculty on substantive issues is needed. However, the more manageable faculty size with less emphasis on a strict division of labor in the organization of faculty responsibilities may provide the smaller independent liberal arts colleges a structural advantage in discovering more easily procedures for meaningful faculty interaction on critical issues. The development among education professors of a dialogue focusing on "the critical transformation of public schools rather than...the simple reproduction of existing institutions and ideologies" (Giroux, 184) is called for. As a first step, regardless of the nature of their institution, teacher educators seeking to incorporate empowerment into the knowledge base must engage among themselves in phenomenological and interpretative encounters on the concept of alienation and next seek means to actualize empowering theory with complimentary pedagogical techniques into the curriculum.

Notes

[1] The identification of unempowered teachers is not, however, a new phenomena (see Lortie 1969, Vavrus 1979, and Waller [1932] 1961).

[2] A blatant example of this resistance to critical analysis comes from a book reviewer for Phi Delta Kappan who dismisses application of Marx's theories as merely "far-left views"; "humorless, probably because they lack imagination"; finds, "in a perverse way, pleasing" Marxist criticism from abroad of American revisionist scholars; and wishes to look "past the left rhetoric and sociological framework" (Brown 1986, 81-82).

[3] For a summary of how the early works of Marx have only been widely available to the public since the early 1960's, see Kaufmann (1970).

[4] For a critical analysis of the widely referenced work of Seeman (1959, 1975) and an articulation of the shortcomings of his work on alienation in which he acknowledges a theoretical debt to Marx but deviants significantly from a focus on the social nature of the production process, see Vavrus (1979, 1987).

[5] For a detailed analysis of the difference between the private sphere of freedom envisioned by classical liberalism compared to Marx's conception of freedom in relationship to control over social forces, see Walicki (1983).

[6] "What began with Marx as an explicitly normative and value-laden notion of alienation as a tool with which to critically examine objective social conditions and social structure gradually evolves into a concept implicitly used to defend a given social structure - through an implicit assumption of what is normal and the development of the notion of alienated individuals as deviant" (Pacheco 1976, 7925-A).

[7] Howey and Zimpher (1989) report that 95 percent of the teacher education students they surveyed indicate that their desire in "helping children to grow and learn" (43) was a factor influencing their decision to enroll in teacher preparation programs. Also see Mclaughlin, Pfeifer, et al. (1986).

[8] Cherryholmes further explains, "Competing conceptions of human dignity are continually judged against each other, and their ambiguities and contradictions in turn enrich their further assessment and development" (176).

[9] "The classic result is the construction of a rock ribbed triad of thesis, antithesis and synthesis, whose strict lines allow prediction even before the facts have been gathered," Ollman points out. Furthermore:

> Among the reasons responsible for the heavy and undeserving emphasis placed upon this triad, along with the natural desire to make the dialectic 'produce,' is the need most people feel to focus their attention on something unchanging even when the object of their gaze is change itself. Those who cannot view reality dialectically require hooks on which to hang the dialectic. Unfortunately, once installed, these hooks, which may render some initial service, are almost impossible to remove (59).

[10] For a critical analysis summarizing bureaucracy and functionalism as it relates to schooling, see Vavrus (forthcoming).

[11] For a sample of possible alternatives to standard behavioral objectives, see Eisner.

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Teacher Empowerment Begins with the College of Education

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In the 1976 spring, the Georgia Department of Education contracted with the College of Education at the University of Georgia to develop assessment instruments to measure minimum performance criteria for certifying beginning teachers. This development of assessment instruments was funded by a grant from the United States Department of Education.

During the first phase of the operation, the Georgia Teacher Assessment Project composed fifty-two competency statements that were correlated with results of research studies and professional literature. The conceptualization of a responsible and purposeful performance essential to the effective professional conduct of all teachers provided the definition of a teacher competency. Classified as generic and essential for effective teaching, those competencies became the content of the Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments (TPAI).[1] The TPAI consists of five assessment instruments: (1) Teaching Plans and Materials, (2) Classroom Procedures, (3) Interpersonal Skills, (4) Professional Standards, and (5) Student Perceptions. Refinement and revision of those instruments was a continual process during the four years of development.

Each instrument was pilot tested with hundreds of beginning teachers. Concurrent with the pilot testing, technical and psychometric qualities of the instruments were investigated. Each instrument of the TPAI was a measure of the degree to which a teacher had demonstrated competent performance. Each competency was represented by several indicators. A rating scale for scoring a teacher on each indicator was also included. Descriptors for each possible rating were provided and the evaluator selected the rating most descriptive of the teacher's performance. The rating scale ranged from one, indicating there was no evidence of the competency, through five, indicating the highest level of evidence of competency. The indicators for each competency represented a consensus among educators in the state.

Validity and reliability studies of the TPAI were conducted extensively in 1978.[2] Based on the results of those studies, the researchers identified two distinct limitations of the TPAI. First, those instruments only provided evidence "for the moment." For example, even if a teacher could perform a given competency during the assessment, there was no guarantee the teacher would consistently perform in this manner in the future. Second, the TPAI included only a partial selection of the competencies necessary for effective teaching. Thus, one could not conclude that a teacher who possessed the measured competencies at a high level of proficiency was necessarily an effective teacher. Even though the instruments making up the TPAI had limitations, they provided an example for other states looking for ways to assess teacher competencies.

In November 1981, the Arizona State Board of Education approved a policy to provide a comprehensive program of professional support and evaluation of beginning teachers and teachers new to that state. The policy focused on the assessment of observable skills of beginning teachers and defined teaching competencies as "teaching skills and behavior deemed essential by the teaching profession for successful classroom performance...regardless of the subject taught or the nature of the learners."[3] Based on that 1981 Proposal, the Arizona State Board of Education authorized the Arizona Teacher Residency Program (ATRP) under the statutes of the Certification Division and

established the Arizona Professional Standards and Certification Advisory Committee (PSCAC) which identified the following areas of teacher competency:

1. Assessing student needs
2. Planning and implementing instructional strategies
3. Developing positive relationships with students
4. Monitoring and communicating student progress
5. Evaluating the instructional program
6. Using support services
7. Managing the classroom

Because the TPAI had been validated and shown to consist of reliable measures of teaching performance, the Arizona Department of Education adopted its use for the pilot project. Arizona educators were given responsibility for the modifying the TPAI as the need arose.

Evaluators assessing the performance of entry-level teachers consisted of a practicing master teacher, a practicing school administrator, a practicing teacher educator responsible for pre-service teacher education, and an external data collector selected by the Arizona Department of Education. All evaluators participated in a fifty-hour training program conducted by the state department.[4]

An entry-level teacher had two years to demonstrate competency at a minimal level of acceptable performance, as assessed by the evaluation team. The entry-level teacher attended a one-day orientation program in regard to the ATRP evaluation process and became a "resident" teacher for the pilot project. Formal assessments occurred twice during the school year. If the resident teacher failed to demonstrate proficiency during the formal assessments, the teaching certificate would not be renewed and the individual could not continue teaching. Each participating district provided the Arizona Department of Education a proposed Teacher Resident Staff Development Plan. Inherent in the purpose of adopting the ATRP to assess beginning teachers and to provide a plan for improvement was the need to provide the Arizona Department of Education with data regarding each approved college program for teacher education. Data analysis was intended to conclude comparison of the programs based on a compilation of each competency and each beginning teacher performance. Due to the overwhelming logistical problems and shortage of funds, the certification phase of the Arizona Teacher Residency Program did not continue after 1983.

Renewal of the assessment of teacher competencies came about in 1985 when budgetary concerns eased. The Center for Excellence in Education at Northern Arizona University worked with the Arizona Department of Education to revise the TPAI so it would include competencies reflecting feedback received from educators during the initial pilot phase of the ATRP. Of the original fifty-four competencies from Georgia, Arizona educators developed thirty-four. Those competencies became the content for the Teacher Performance Assessment (TPA) consisting of three assessment instruments: (1) Teaching Plans and Materials, (2) Classroom Procedures, and (3) Interpersonal Skills. See table 1 for a list of the competencies included in the TPA.[5]

Emphasis during this phase of the ATRP was on measuring effective teacher competencies during student teaching and the assessment of first-year teachers. During the

1986 spring semester, Grand Canyon College of Education became involved in the TPA. At that time, the Grand Canyon College of Education was seeking a more definitive assessment for student teachers. The TPA appeared to measure competencies reflective of the college's pre-service teacher education program. Further, because Grand Canyon College of Education is a practitioner's college, it was important to the faculty that the measurement instrument adopted have statewide recognition.

From 1986 to the present, the Arizona Department of Education has revised the TPA into the existing Teacher Residency Project Instrument (TRPI) which assesses thirty competencies for the induction of first- and second-year teachers. See table 2 for a list of the competencies included in the TRPI.[6] Beginning in the fall of 1988, the Arizona Department of Education concentrated efforts on the induction of first-year teachers who were new to the state or who were new to the school districts involved in the Arizona Teacher Residency Project (ATRP).

Program Development

Program development for Grand Canyon College of Education began during the collection of data, while working with faculty from Northern Arizona University. The assessments revealed a high rate of performance by student teachers from the Grand Canyon College of Education. Further, the student teachers

Table 1

Teacher Performance Assessment (TPA) Competencies

Teaching Plans and Materials

1. Objectives
2. Teaching procedures for lessons
3. Content, materials, and media for lessons
4. Procedures for assessing learner progress
5. Requires all levels of cognitive functioning
6. Takes into account learner's abilities and styles
7. Instruction takes into account different rates of learning
8. Monitors students' progress
9. Provides learner feedback

Classroom Procedures

1. Uses instructional equipment and other aids
2. Instructional materials encourage student practice to meet objectives
3. Gives directions and explanations related to lesson
4. Clarifies directions and expectations
5. Uses learner response and questions in teaching
6. Provides learner feedback throughout lesson
7. Uses acceptable written and oral expression
8. Learning activities are logically sequenced
9. Uses a variety of teaching methods
10. Demonstrates ability to work with individuals, small and large groups
11. Gets learner initially involved in lesson
12. Provides opportunities for participation
13. Maintains learner involvement
14. Reinforces learner involvement

15. Helps students understand purpose and importance of topic
16. Demonstrates knowledge in subject area
17. Attends to routine task
18. Uses instructional time effectively
19. Maintains an attractive and stimulating learning environment

Interpersonal Skills

1. Communicates enthusiasm
2. Demonstrates warmth and friendliness
3. Sensitive to needs and feelings of students
4. Provides feedback to learner about behavior
5. Maintains positive classroom behavior
6. Manages disruptive behavior

Source: Jim R. Davis, Teacher Performance Assessment (Flagstaff, Arizona: Northern Arizona University, 1985).

attained this high rate of performance within nine weeks. Evaluators for Grand Canyon College of Education consisted of the college supervisor and a residency trained cooperating teacher. Initially, an external data collector established the ability of the evaluators to use the instrument appropriately. Interrater reliability for the TPA remained high during the 1986-1987 data collection and analysis. A summary of the data analysis revealed that the student teachers felt highly successful and that their self-confidence increased. In addition, attitudes improved and there was an increase in communication among the faculty, student teachers, and the school personnel.[7] That analysis also provided evidence of the effectiveness of several practices already in existence informally within the teacher preparation program at Grand Canyon College of Education. The following practices were to be formally implemented throughout the teacher education program as a result of the data received:

1. Student teaching would consist of a full-time experience for nine weeks.
2. The TPA Instrument, developed in conjunction with Northern Arizona University, would become the assessment instrument to evaluate student teachers.
3. The thirty-four competencies assessed using the TPA would be formally and systematically incorporated into the professional education course work prior to the student teaching experience.
4. College supervisors would make four observation visits to the school site. The college supervisor and the cooperating teacher would conduct three formal assessments consisting of a pretest, a midterm, a final, and one informal assessment.
5. All college supervisors would attend a residency training workshop. Important participants of the workshop would include the cooperating teachers and school personnel.
6. Grand Canyon College of Education student teacher supervisors would use the TPA during the student teaching evaluating process regardless of whether the school personnel had been trained to use the TPA.

Research Data

Effective research on teaching has yielded data which enable the profession to identify competencies effective teachers possess. As we have begun to measure those competencies and identify effective teachers, the transition from theory into practice has appeared to be successful. The Arizona Department of Education received a report from the Maricopa County Teacher Residency project in June 1988.[8] The data sample included sixty-one teachers who graduated from three in-state universities (Grand Canyon College, Arizona State University, Northern Arizona University) and several out-of-state universities. Even though the sample size is small for 1987-88, preliminary data collected by Enz and Anderson in 1988-89 involving 350 teachers appears to yield replication of the 1987-88 data patterns. Data contained in that report verified what faculty of the Grand Canyon College of Education had first observed in the classroom when using the TPA assessment instrument: graduates of the Grand Canyon College of Education performed at a high rate of competency during the assessment observation. On each of the three instruments, assessing a total of thirty TRPI competencies, graduates from Grand Canyon College of Education performed at a higher rate than any of the other graduates. A rating of four or five indicates a strength on a competency, and a rating of two or one indicates a competency on which improvement is needed. Table 3 contains means for the total ratings of the TRPI.

Table 2

Teacher Residency Program Instrument (TRPI) Competencies

Teaching Plans and Materials

1. Objectives
2. Teaching procedures
3. Resources
4. Assessing student progress
5. Levels of cognitive thinking
6. Variety of students' abilities and styles
7. Monitors students progress and provides feedback

Classroom Procedures

1. Instructional equipment and other aids
2. Instructional materials encourage appropriate practice
3. Gives directions and explanations related to lesson
4. Psesents information related to lesson
5. Uses learner responses and questions in teaching
6. Provides learner feedback throughout lesson
7. Uses variety of teaching methods appropriately and effectively
8. Demonstrates ability to work with individuals, small and large groups
9. Focuses student attention early in lesson
10. Provides opportunities for participation
11. Maintains student involvement
12. Provides opportunity for closure
13. Provides instruction which promotes retention
14. Demonstrates knowledge in subject area
15. Attends to routine tasks
16. Uses instructional time effectively
17. Maintains an attractive and stimulating learning environment

Interpersonal Skills

1. Communicates enthusiasm
2. Demonstrates warmth and friendliness
3. Sensitive to needs and feelings of students
4. Provides feedback to learner about behavior
5. Maintains positive classroom behavior
6. Manages disruptive behavior

Source: Barbara Weber, Teacher Residency Program Instrument (Tucson, Arizona: Center for Education Development, June 1987).

Table 3

Total of TRPI Mean Ratings

Grand Canyon College	State University #1	State University #2	Out of State Universities
46.167	32.125	30.708	26.000

Source: B. J. Enz and G. W. Anderson, "Summary of the Final Report Data for the First Year" (A Report for the Arizona Department of Education, Maricopa County Teacher Residency Project, Phoenix, Arizona, June 1988).

Not only did graduates of the Grand Canyon College of Education perform at a higher rate than graduates from the other universities, but they performed at that level with the least teaching experience. Table 4 contains means for the number of years of classroom experience.

Table 4

Mean Years of Classroom Teaching

Grand Canyon College	State University #1	State University #2	Out of State Universities
2.8	8.0	8.0	5.9

Source: B. J. Enz and G. W. Anderson, "Summary of the Final Report Data for the First Year" (A Report for the Arizona Department of Education, Maricopa County Teacher Residency Project, Phoenix, Arizona, June 1988).

Figure 1 is an illustration of data regarding "Teaching Plans and Materials." Of the seven competencies assessed, Grand Canyon College of Education graduates performed at a higher rate than other graduates on three of those competencies. Figure 2 is an illustration of data regarding "Classroom Procedures." Of the seventeen competencies, Grand Canyon College of Education graduates performed at a higher rate than other graduates on thirteen competencies. Figure 3 is an illustration of data regarding "Interpersonal Skills." On all six competencies assessed, Grand Canyon College of Education graduates performed at a higher rate than graduates from other universities.

Implications

The data presented provides evidence that the student teaching experience can successfully facilitate the transition from the theoretical knowledge base of teaching and research to the actuality of classroom practice. By systematically reviewing what the world of practice defines as an effective teacher and incorporating those terms descriptive of an effective teacher into the teacher education program, the Grand Canyon College of

Education faculty should be able to introduce to the world of practice more competent teachers. Once basic teaching skills have been mastered, a teacher can attend to becoming an expert at teaching.

Just as Piaget established developmental stages of cognitive growth, perhaps pre-service educators need to explore the student teaching experience in relationship to developmental stages of competence. A conceptualization of developmental stages implies that a systematic sequential set of events will occur. A developmental stage, however, need not be thought of in terms of limitations. Rather, stages imply developmentally appropriate experiences for the learners while recognizing prerequisite experiences for each level of that development. The stages are fluid, rather than rigid. Therefore, perhaps pre-service educators should arrange the teacher education program to accommodate various developmental stages of the complexities of the competent professional we call teacher. As we review implications of this process and the apparent results, we turn towards the research conducted by David Berliner.[9]

Berliner identified five stages of skill development of teachers: (1) novice, (2) advanced beginner, (3) competent, (4) proficient, and (5) expert. If we accept those skill development stages as descriptive of teachers, our pre-service program should prepare entry-level teachers to function at the highest stage possible. Just as children do not learn at the same rate or at the same time, perhaps a natural result of individual differences is that students of teaching will enter the profession at various levels of competence. Although some first-year teachers will enter the profession at the novice level, we must not restrict other, more able, teachers to this level, if they demonstrate higher levels of competence.

Based on the data presented, we can infer that some teacher education graduates enter their first year of teaching at a higher level of competence than others. As educators further investigate the relationship between measures of the student teachers' performance and measures of performance as first-year teachers, an understanding of stages of developmental competence can begin to provide education colleges with procedures that will enable them to train a more effective teacher more quickly.

In retrospect, the TPA shares many of the limitations of the TPAI. However, when those limitations are recognized, we can say a teacher's performance "for the moment" on certain teacher competencies provides the basic foundation upon which to build. Therefore, knowledge becomes a process rather than a product. Although at first teacher competencies appear to be only a product, those competencies provide the framework from which the act of teaching becomes a process. The teacher then begins to build additional effective teacher competencies and consistent performances appropriate for the classroom environment in relation to student learning.

Teacher Empowerment

Teacher empowerment may be brought about when teachers demonstrate a mastery level of teaching that will be recognized by their administration, for it is the administration that allows for that transference of power. Assessing teaching effectiveness has taken a substantial amount of the administrator's time in schools. If we can ascertain that teachers are truly competent to begin practicing the profession of teaching, we can attend to the other matters of the school operation. The ability to demonstrate mastery of a set of professional teaching behaviors may allow beginning teachers to move toward independent thought and action earlier in their careers. In turn, the move toward independent thought and action may enable a teacher to become empowered. Not only will teachers be

empowered to make decisions in their own classrooms, but teachers will have the authority to make decisions in regard to all professional practice within the school. It seems reasonable to assume that a first-year teacher who enters the profession at a high level of mastery competence has a greater chance of receiving empowerment than another first-year teacher. Thus, increasing competence will increase the opportunity for teachers to become empowered.

Endnotes

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